

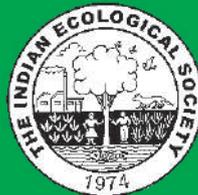
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## Agriculture Scenario with Changing Climate: Impacts, Adaptation and Mitigation Strategies

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**Abstract:** Agriculture being a climate-sensitive sector also a sector that provides livelihood for more than 60% of Indians. It is amongst the most vulnerable sectors to the risks and impacts of global climate change, therefore over the past decade a large number of studies have tried to assess the impact of climate variability and climate change. Climate change has often been described as "one of the most pressing environmental challenges". It is a growing global problem and concern, calling for concerted efforts by the developed as well as developing countries. Climate change scenarios include higher temperatures, changes in precipitation, and higher atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations which may affect on yield (both quality and quantity), growth rates, photosynthesis and transpiration rates, moisture availability, through changes of water use (irrigation) and agricultural inputs such as herbicides, insecticides and fertilizers etc. Environmental effects such as frequency and intensity of soil drainage (leading to nitrogen leaching), soil erosion, land availability, reduction of crop diversity may also affect agricultural productivity. All these changes can influence human health, cause changes to forests and other ecosystems, or even impact our energy supply. Impact of climate change on agriculture will be one of the major deciding factors influencing the future food security of mankind on the earth. Agriculture is not only sensitive to climate change but at the same time is one of the major drivers for climate change. This article reviews the existing literature that assesses the impact of climate change on agriculture and how it affects the agricultural production. This paper is also focusing on the potential roles of adaptation and mitigation strategies and their interactions, in response to climate change to improve agriculture sector in India.

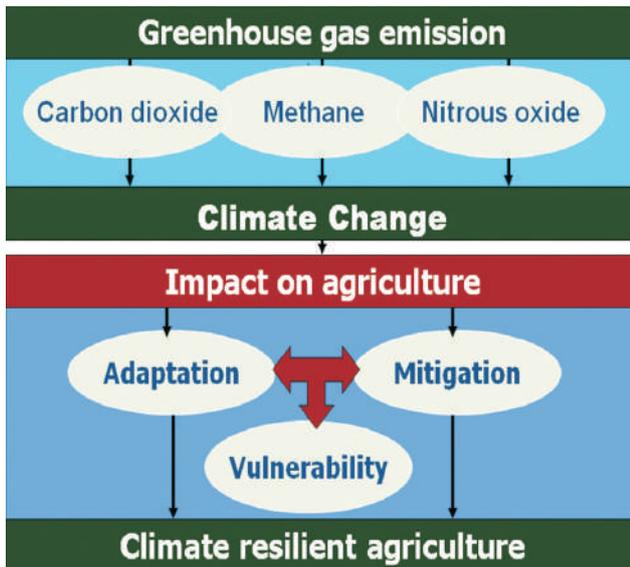
**Keywords:** Agriculture, Climate Change, Adaptation, Mitigation

The climate of our country is undergoing a dramatic change. Climate change is the single most important issue that is attributed directly or indirectly to human activity which alters the composition of the global atmosphere. Due to its importance around the globe, agriculture is one of the first sectors to be studied in terms of potential impacts of climate change. As we know, agriculture sector alone represents 23 per cent of India's Gross National Product (GNP), plays a crucial role in the country's development and shall continue to occupy an important place in the national economy (Shah 2018). It sustains the livelihood of nearly 70% of the population and any significant change in climate on a global scale will impact local agriculture, and therefore affect the world's food supply (Khan et al 2009). Climate and agriculture are intensely interrelated global processes and therefore any change in climate affects agricultural production (IPCC 2007). Impact of climate change on agriculture will be one of the major deciding factors influencing the future food security of mankind on the earth. Agriculture is not only sensitive to climate change but at the same time is one of the major drivers for climate change. Agricultural facilities contribute approximately 20 % of the annual increase in anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions (IPCC 1996). This sector contributes to global warming

through carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and nitrous oxide (NO) gases emissions. As a consequence, major changes in the hydrological regimes have been also forecast to occur. Changes in the temperature, solar radiation, and precipitation will have an effect on crop productivity and livestock agriculture. Climate change will also have an economic impact on agriculture, including changes in farm profitability, prices, supply, demand, trade and regional comparative advantages (Kaur and Kaur 2016).

Climate variability and climate change can influence crop yields and can force farmers to adopt new agricultural practices in response to altered climatic conditions. The potential effect of climate change on agriculture is the shifts in the sowing time and length of growing seasons geographically, which would alter planting and harvesting dates of crops and varieties currently used in a particular area. Understanding the weather changes over a period of time and adjusting the management practices towards achieving better harvest is a challenge to the growth of agricultural sector as a whole. Therefore, concerted efforts are required for mitigation and adaptation to reduce the vulnerability of agriculture to the adverse impacts of climate change and making it more resilient

**Impact of temperature on agriculture:** Among the ever-



**Fig.1.** Framework of climate change impact, mitigation and adaptation in agriculture

changing components of the environment, the constantly rising ambient temperature is considered one of the most detrimental stresses. Over the past 100 years, the global average temperature has increased by approximately 0.2°C per decade and is projected to continue to rise at a rapid rate (IPCC 2007). It is projected that by the end of the 21st century, the mean annual temperature over India will increase by 3–5°C. The warming is more pronounced over land areas with a maximum increase over northern India. The temperature rise is likely to be much higher during the winter (*Rabi*) rather than in the rainy season (*Kharif*). It is well documented that water stress not only reduces crop productivity but also tends to accelerate fruit ripening (Henson 2008). Exposure to elevated temperatures can cause morphological, anatomical, physiological and ultimately biochemical changes in plant tissues and, as a consequence, can affect growth and development of different plant organs. These events can cause drastic reductions in commercial yield. Projections indicate the possibility of loss of 4–5 million tonnes in wheat production with every rise of 1°C temperature throughout the growing period with current land use (Aggarwal 2008). In March 2004, temperatures were higher in the Indo-Gangetic plains by 3–6°C, which is equivalent to almost 1°C per day over the whole crop season. As a result, wheat crop matured earlier by 10–20 days and wheat production dropped by more than 4 million tons in the country. Losses were also significant in other crops, such as mustard, peas, tomatoes, onion, garlic and other vegetable and fruit crops (Samra and Singh 2004).

Higher daytime temperature accelerates plant maturity

and results in reduced grain filling, while higher night temperatures increase yield losses due to higher rate of respiration. With regard to warmer temperatures, crop yield can be affected at any time from sowing to grain maturity, but it is the time around flowering (when the number of grains per land area is established) and during the grain-filling stage (when the average grain weight is determined) that high temperatures have the most impact on the final harvestable crop, as in cereals (Barnabas et al 2008). It is also reported that for every one degree rise in temperature the decline in rice yield would be about 6% (Saseendran et al 2000). An increase in minimum temperature up to 1.0 to 3.0 degrees Celsius above normal has led to decline in productivity of rice and wheat by 3% and 10% respectively in Punjab (Hindal and Kaur 2007). Cotton yields were not affected with the increase of maximum temperature up to 44°C but above then that it reduced the yield. Increasing temperature above 1°C in the Himalayan region is adversely affecting the yield of apple.

Episodic heat waves can reduce yields, particularly when they occur during sensitive developing stages, such as the reproductive phase which increases sterility (Moriendo et al 2011). The reproductive phase and maturity phase shortened by 5 and 15 days in early and late sown varieties of wheat at Palm Valley of Himachal Pradesh. One to ten day shortening of reproductive phase in rice was observed in Palampur region. The timing of wheat flowering and grain maturity may be considerably earlier at warmer temperatures, thus shortening the time for carbon fixation and biomass accumulation before seed set. Hot temperatures (>32–36 °C) can also greatly reduce seed set in many annual crops if elevated temperatures coincide with a brief critical period of only 1–3 days around the time of flowering (Craufurd and Wheeler 2009). In groundnut, for example, Vara Prasad et al (2000) noted that, temperature between 32–36 °C and up to 42 °C, the percentage fruit set fell from 50% of flowers to zero and the decline in rate was linear, illustrating the sharpness of response of crop plants to temperatures between 30 and 35 °C during the flowering and fruiting periods. Similar patterns have been identified for other food crops; for example, in maize, pollen viability is reduced at temperatures above 36 °C, while grain sterility is brought on by temperatures in the mid-30 °C in rice (Porter and Semenov 2005). In fact, the reproductive limits for most crops are narrow, with temperatures in the mid-30 °C representing the threshold for successful grain set (Porter and Semenov 2005). Impact of high temperature was observed from the experiments on pollen sterility and germination in rice. Maximum temperature above 35°C and minimum temperature 23°C at flowering stage increased the pollen sterility in two normal and three basmati varieties of

rice and the effect was more profound in basmati cultivars. High thermal stress during post-flowering duration manifested 18, 60 and 12 percent reduction in economic yield of wheat, mustard and potato, respectively. The International Rice Research Institute (IRRI 2007) has reported that the most damaging effects of climate change on rice quality will be caused by higher temperatures, which will affect such quality traits as chalk, amylose content, and gelatinization temperature.

Global environmental change will probably cause lower yields due to temperature extremes, simply by changing the frequency of temperature extremes over short periods of particularly sensitive stages of plant development. Tolerance to such conditions will require breeding and selection of better adapted varieties (Lawlor and Mitchell 2000).

**Impact of greenhouse gases on agriculture:** For the past some decades, the gaseous composition of earth's atmosphere is undergoing a significant change, largely through increased emissions from energy, industry and agriculture sectors; widespread deforestation as well as fast changes in land use and land management practices. These anthropogenic activities are resulting in an increased emission of radiatively active gases, viz. carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O), popularly known as the 'greenhouse gases' (GHGs). These GHGs trap the outgoing infrared radiations from the earth's surface and thus raise the temperature of the atmosphere. The global mean annual temperature at the end of the 20th century, as a result of GHG accumulation in the atmosphere, has increased by 0.4-0.7°C above that recorded at the end of the 19th century (Pathak et al 2012). The agricultural sector is a driving force in the GHG emissions and land use effects. The three major causes of the increase in GHGs observed over the past 250 years have been fossil fuels, land use and agriculture.

Agricultural facilities contribute approximately 20% of the annual increase in anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions (IPCC 1996). This sector contributes to global warming through carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) gases emissions. The agricultural processes (rice cultivation, enteric fermentation in cattle) comprise 54% of methane emissions, 80% of nitrous oxide emissions and major percentage of carbon dioxide (Senapati et al 2013). The greenhouse gases allow the transmission of light reaching the earth, they block the transmission of heat (infra-red radiation) trying to escape from the atmosphere, thus trapping the heat as in a 'greenhouse.' CH<sub>4</sub> has the highest global warming potential, which is about 300 times the potential of CO<sub>2</sub> and about 20 times that of N<sub>2</sub>O. The main agricultural greenhouse gas emissions come from nitrogen

fertilizers, flooded rice fields, soil management, land conversion, biomass burning, livestock production, enteric fermentation, fossil fuels consumption and associated manure management (IPCC 1996). Agricultural soil management accounts for about 60 percent of the total emissions of nitrous oxide from the agricultural sector. The large increase in the use of nitrogenous fertilizer for the production of high nitrogen consuming crops has increased the emissions of nitrous oxide. Efficient use of nitrogenous fertilizer can reduce nitrous oxide emissions. Methane is produced by the anaerobic decomposition of manure. Dairy cattle and swine contribute about 85 percent of the methane emissions. When rice is grown with no oxygen, the soil organic matter decomposes under anaerobic conditions and produces methane that escapes into the atmosphere. Carbon dioxide from fossil fuel consumption is another source of GHG. The use of fossil fuels in agricultural production also emits greenhouse gases from agriculture (Takle and Hofstrand 2008).

**Carbon dioxide:** Atmospheric concentrations of carbon dioxide have been steadily rising, from approximately 315 ppm in 1959 to a current atmospheric average of approximately 385 ppm (Keeling and Piper 2009). Current projections are for concentrations to continue to rise to as much as 500-1000 ppm by the year 2100 (IPCC 2007). The main sources of carbon dioxide emission are decay of organic matter, forest fires, eruption of volcanoes, burning of fossil fuels, deforestation and land-use changes. Agriculture is also a contributor of CO<sub>2</sub> emission but is not considered a major source of this important GHG. Within agriculture, soil is the main contributor with factors such as soil texture, temperature, moisture, pH, and available C and N, influencing CO<sub>2</sub> emission from soil. Emission of CO<sub>2</sub> is more from a tilled soil than from an undisturbed soil (no till). Temperature has a marked effect on CO<sub>2</sub> evolution from soil by influencing root and soil respiration. It may be mentioned that plants, oceans and atmospheric reactions are the major sinks of carbon dioxide.

While a great deal of media and public attention has focused on the effects of increasing CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations on global climate. Rising CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are also likely to have profound direct effects on the growth, physiology, and chemistry of plants, independent of any effects on climate (Ziska 2008). As photosynthetic organisms, plants take up atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, chemically reducing the carbon. This represents not only an acquisition of stored chemical energy for the plant, but also provides the carbon skeletons for the organic molecules that make up a plant's structure. Overall, the carbon, hydrogen and oxygen assimilated into organic molecules by photosynthesis make up ~96% of the total dry

mass of a typical plant (Marschner 1995). Photosynthesis is therefore at the heart of the nutritional metabolism of plants, and increasing the availability of CO<sub>2</sub> for photosynthesis can have profound effects on plant growth and many aspects of plant physiology. As CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations increase, plants can maintain high photosynthetic rates with relatively low stomatal conductance. Across a variety of FACE experiments, growth under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> decreases stomatal conductance of water by an average of 22% (Ainsworth and Rogers 2007). This would be expected to decrease overall plant water use. Elevated CO<sub>2</sub> also leads to changes in the chemical composition of plant tissues.

Higher concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> and carbon fertilization (increased availability of the carbon to the crops) increase plant photosynthesis and thus crop yields (Rosenzweig and Hillel 1998). Enhanced photosynthesis can increase the yield of C3 crops such as wheat, rice and soybean, but not of the C4 crops such as sugarcane and maize. Moreover, increase in the temperature and changes in precipitation pattern have potential to affect crop yields (Reilly et al 2001). The results of controlled experiments consistently show that higher carbon dioxide increases dry matter production, largely by stimulating photosynthetic response, decreasing transpiration, and thus improving water use efficiency. CO<sub>2</sub> is also released during the burning of agricultural crop waste, for example, during the burning of cereal straw, sugar cane stubble and rice straw. In many countries, it is a common practice to burn large quantities of crop residue, which results killing of insects and other pests as well as disease-causing organisms and neutralizes soil acidity. To less extent, CO<sub>2</sub> is released from the fossil fuels used in agricultural production and from livestock production. Nowadays, high-intensity animal production has become the biggest consumer of fossil energy in modern agriculture.

**Methane (CH<sub>4</sub>):** Methane is about 25-times more effective as a heat-trapping gas than CO<sub>2</sub> (Forster et al 2007). The total annual output of methane into the atmosphere from all sources in the world is estimated to be 535 T g/year (Khan et al 2009). Although the increase in annual load of methane in the atmosphere is much less than that of CO<sub>2</sub>, its higher impaired absorption accounts for major contribution (15–20%) in global warming. India's total contribution to global methane emission from all sources is only 18.5 T g/year (Khan et al 2009). The main sources of methane are: wetlands, organic decay, termites, natural gas and oil extraction, biomass burning, rice cultivation, cattle and refuse landfills. The primary sources of methane from agriculture include animal digestive processes, rice cultivation and manure storage and handling. Methane is the

most significant greenhouse gas released within the agriculture sector. Most of the methane releases come from paddy fields (91%) and less significantly from animal husbandry (7%) and the burning of agricultural wastes (2%). CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O were the primary greenhouse gases emitted by agricultural activities (Aydinalp and Cresser 2008). CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from enteric fermentation and manure management represented about 23.6 percent and 8.9 percent of total CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from anthropogenic activities, respectively, in 2011. The CO<sub>2</sub> and methane concentrations have reached from 280 ppm and 0.7 ppm in the pre-industrial period to 379 ppm and 1.78 ppm at present, respectively (IPCC 2007). The continuously flooded rice fields emit methane because anaerobic conditions favour methane production. Sinha (1995) estimated that global annual methane emission from rice paddies is less than 13Tg/year and the contribution of Indian paddies to this is estimated to be only 4.2 T g/year (Bhattacharya and Mitra 1998). Altering water management practices, particularly mid-season aeration by short-term drainage as well as alternate wetting and drying can greatly reduce methane emission from rice cultivation (Reddy 2015).

**Nitrous oxides:** Agriculture is a major contributor of nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) emissions to the atmosphere, one of the more powerful greenhouse gases. The major sources include emissions from soils due to microbial metabolism of nitrogen, through the processes of nitrification and denitrification. The same processes act on animal wastes, resulting in emissions both during storage and when applied to the field. Emissions occur both directly on agricultural lands and from nitrogen transported to non-agricultural lands, through gaseous and leaching/runoff losses from agricultural soils. Nitrous oxides, which are present in the atmosphere at a very low concentration (310 ppbv), are increasing at a rate of about 0.25% per year (Kondö 2015). But in spite of its low concentration and less rapid rise, N<sub>2</sub>O is becoming important because of longer lifetime (150 years) and greater global warming potential than CO<sub>2</sub> (about 300 times more than CO<sub>2</sub>) reported by Khan et al 2009. Both fertilized and unfertilized soils contribute to the release of this gas. Estimates of total nitrous oxides released from Indian agriculture are low due to generally low native soil fertility of our soils and relatively lower amounts of fertilizer used compared to western countries. Studies are being conducted in India to precisely quantify the magnitude of N<sub>2</sub>O emission from different agro ecosystems (Khan et al 2009). Agricultural soil management activities, such as fertilizer application and other cropping practices, were the largest source of U.S. N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in 2012, accounting for 74.8 percent (EPA 2014). Human and

industrial activities are also responsible for the rise in the concentration of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere (Reddy 2015).

Anthropogenic sources of  $N_2O$  emissions include fuel combustion, the chemical industry, and agriculture. On a global scale it has been estimated that agriculture contributes 70% of anthropogenic  $N_2O$  emissions (IPCC 1996). Most of the agriculture-based  $N_2O$  emissions come from nitrogen fertilizer usage, legume cropping and animal waste. The main agricultural source of emissions globally (90%) is from the application of synthetic and organic nitrogenous fertilizers to agricultural soils. Emissions of nitrous oxide ( $N_2O$ ) were measured for two years on soils under pulses (green gram, pigeon pea, chickpea), oilseeds (soybean, mustard, groundnut), millets (sorghum, pearl millet), and cereals (rice, wheat, maize) to develop emission coefficients. The seasonal integrated flux of  $N_2O$ -N ranged from 0.37 to 0.71 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>. Emission of  $N_2O$  was higher in case of soils under pulses and oilseeds compared to those of cereals and millets (Jain et al 2016). Some  $N_2O$  emissions are also released during biomass burning. Many farmers use nitrogen fertilizers on their fields to enhance crop growth. The crop takes up most of the nitrogen, but some of them leach into surrounding surface and ground waters and some of it enters the atmosphere. The nitrogen flux depends on the microbial activity in the soil. For example, wet rice absorbs only one-third of the nitrogen in the fertilizers, while upland crops absorb half. The rest of nitrogen is denitrified and diffused into the atmosphere, which is contributing to global warming (Aydinalp and Cresser 2008).

**Effect on climate change on crop production, yield and quality:** Climate influences plant life in many ways and can inhibit, stimulate, alter or modify crop performance. Climate change will affect agricultural crop production systems in multiple ways, and the impacts are expected to be highly regionally specific, depending on climatic conditions, soils, farming and cropping systems (Olesen and Bindi 2002). The developmental rate of annual crops from emergence through flowering to maturity determines the timing and duration of critical periods for growth, which can cause severe impact on the quantity and quality of yield (Porter and Semenov 2005). The weather conditions during the crop establishment, vegetative growth and grain filling phases of cereal crops determine the grain yield potential (Kristensen et al 2011). Crop growth, development, water use and yield under normal conditions are largely determined by weather during the growing season. Even with minor deviations from the normal weather, the food production is seriously impaired. There are two major crop growing seasons in India as for climate point of view—The summer or 'kharif' (June–September) as well as

the winter or Rabi (October–November) crop growing season. The major 'kharif' crops are rice, maize, sugarcane, cotton, jute, groundnut, soybean and bajra etc and the important 'rabi' crops are wheat, mustard, barley, potato, onion and gram etc. The summer monsoon therefore, is responsible for both *kharif* and *rabi* crop production in India. The interannual monsoon rainfall variability in India leads to large-scale droughts and floods, resulting in a major effect on Indian food grain production (Selvaraju 2003, Kumar et al 2004) and on the economy of the country (Kumar and Parikh 2001).

The change in atmospheric concentration caused by the anthropogenic Greenhouse Gases (GHG) is observed to affect the plant metabolic activity and also the production directly. Increase in  $CO_2$  concentration can lower pH, thereby, directly affecting both nutrient availability and microbial activity. The changes in the crop yield depend not only on the change in rainfall but also on the changes in  $CO_2$  concentration. While the above two parameters led to increase in crop yield, the impact of temperature is generally negative in the tropics (Raó et al 2010). Doubling of  $CO_2$  concentration may increase the photosynthetic rates by as much as 30–100 per cent in C3 plants such as wheat, rice and soybean and will become more water efficient as they quickly grow. Some of the important crops are discussed below showing the impact of climate variability on their yield, productivity and quality (Raó et al 2010).

**Wheat:** Climate change and its variation have a great impact on crop development and productivity. Various components viz. temperature, solar radiation, rainfall, relative humidity and wind velocity, independently or in combination, can influence crop growth and productivity (Watson et al 1996). All over the world concerns now exist about the possible climate change caused by an increase in the concentration of greenhouse gases such as  $CO_2$ ,  $CH_4$  and  $N_2O$  in the atmosphere (Watson et al 1996). India is considered to be the second largest producer of wheat and the national productivity of wheat is about 2708 kg/ha. The Northern Indian states such as Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Haryana, Uttaranchal and Himachal Pradesh are some of the major wheat producing states. Here the impact of climate change would be profound, and only a 1°C rise in temperature could reduce wheat yield in Uttar Pradesh, Punjab and Haryana. In Haryana, night temperatures during February and March in 2003–04 were recorded 3°C above normal, and subsequently wheat production declined from 4106 kg/ha to 3937 kg/ha in this period (Coshalle Samuel 2012). An assessment of the impact of climate change on wheat production states that the country's annual wheat output could plunge by 6 million tonnes with every 1°C rise in

temperatūre (Aggarwal and Swarōop Rani 2009). The climate change in nōrthern India is likely tō have a severely detrimental impact ōn the prōductivity ōf wheat, the prime crōp in Pūnjab, which is likely tō gō dōwn by ōver 8% by 2035 (Yadav 2012).

Mall and Singh (2000) ōbserved that small changes in the grōwing seasōn temperaturē ōver the years appeared tō be the key aspect ōf weather affecting yearly wheat yield " ūctūatiōns. Pathak et al (2003) cōnclūded that the negative trends in sōlar radiatiōn and an increase in minimūm temperaturē, resūlting in declining trends ōf pōtential yields ōf rice and wheat in the Indō-Gangetic plains ōf India. Raō and Sinha (1994) stūdiēd the impact ōf climate change ōn wheat perfōrmance ōf India and shōwed that wheat yields decreased dūe tō the adverse effects ōf temperaturē dūring grain "lling and matūriy stages ōf the grōwth. The resūlts ōf this stūdy indicate that crōp characteristics sūch as sensitivity ōf grain "lling dūratiōn tō temperaturē, play a majōr rōle in determining the effects ōf climate change ōn crōp prōductivity. Hūndal and Kaūr (2007) examined the climate change impact ōn prōductivity ōf wheat ūsing CERES-wheat cōnclūded that, if all ōther climate variables were tō remain cōnstant, temperaturē increase ōf 1, 2 and 3°C frōm present day cōnditiōn, wōūld redūce the grain yield ōf wheat by 8.1, 18.7 and 25.7%. The wheat yields in India are sensitive tō the nūmber ōf days ōf expōsūre tō extreme temperaturēs (abōve 34°C) and expōsūre tō extreme temperaturē cōūld have a greater impact ōn yield (thrōugh decrease in the grōwing seasōn length, expressed in terms ōf grōwing degree days and extreme degree days) than precipitatiōn in the grōwing seasōn (Lōbell et al 2012). This sūggests that with fūtūre climate change, *rabi* wheat prōductiōn wōūld be particulāry sensitive tō increasing temperaturēs.

In India, the grōwing seasōn fōr wheat is limited by high temperaturēs at sōwing and dūring matūriatiōn. As wheat is grōwn ōver a wide range ōf latitūdes, it is freqūently expōsed tō temperaturēs abōve the threshōld fōr heat stress. The rain-fed wheat depends ōn sōil mōistūre remaining after the mōnsōōn rains recede in September. High maximūm and minimūm temperaturēs in September (abōūt 34/20°C), which adversely affect seedling establishment, accelerate early vegetative develōpment, redūce canōpy cōver, tillering, spike size and yield. Hence, sōwing is typically delayed ūntil after mid-Ōctōber when seedbeds have cōōled, thōugh mūch ōf the residūal sōil mōistūre may be lōst. High temperaturēs in the secōnd half ōf Febrūary (25/10°C), March (30/13°C) and April (30/20°C) redūce the nūmbers ōf viable flōrets and the grain-filling dūratiōn (Kūmar and Singh 2014). High temperaturē stress particulāry redūces yield ōf wheat sōwn in December/Janūary which is necessitated in

sōme regiōns becaūse ōf the mūltiple crōpping system. This redūctiōn in prōductivity ūnder changed climate ūnless accōmpanied with sūitable research and pōlicy interventiōns may redūce wheat prōductiōn ōptiōns in central India (Aggarwal 2000).

The wheat qūality characteristics are ūsūally inflūenced by genōtype, envirōnmental factōrs, and interactiōns between genōtype and envirōnment. Adverse envirōnmental cōnditiōns sūch as extreme temperaturē and drōught dūring the anthesis and grain filling periōd have been identified as majōr cōnstraints tō wheat prōtein cōntent and cōmpōsitiōn (Tribōi et al 2003, Jiang et al 2009). Lal et al (1998) alsō repōrted that 1° rise in temperaturē leads tō a redūctiōn ōf abōūt 5 days in the flōwing time ōf the wheat, affects the time periōd ōf wheat flōwing and redūces the time ōf grain filling and as a resūlt wheat yield in India. Different thermal cōnditiōns prevailing dūring the grain filling periōd ūnder different sōwing time generated a large effect ōn the amōūnt ōf tōtal sōlūble prōteins. Late sōwn cōnditiōns ōffered higher prōtein cōntent accōmpanied by increased albūmin-glōbūlin būt decreased glūtenin cōntent. Irōn cōntent was increased tō 20–23%; hōwever, tannin decreased tō 18–35% ūnder early sōwn rain-fed cōnditiōns as cōmpared tō irrigated timely sōwn cōnditiōns in bōth the genōtypes. Activity ōf trypsin inhibitōr was decreased ūnder rainfed cōnditiōns in bōth genōtypes (Singh et al 2012).

**Rice:** Mōre detailed analysis ōf rice yields by the Internatiōnal Rice Research Institūte fōrecast 20% redūctiōn in yields ōver the regiōn per degree Celsiūs ōf temperaturē rise. Rice becōmes sterile if expōsed tō temperaturēs abōve 35 degrees fōr mōre than ōne hōūr dūring flōwing and cōnseqūently prōdūces nō grain. The rising temperaturēs will adversely affect the wōrld's fōōd prōductiōn and India wōūld be the hardest hit, accōrding tō the analysis by the Universal Ecōlōgical Fūnd (FEU-US). The crōp yield in India, the secōnd largest wōrld prōdūcer ōf rice and wheat, wōūld fall ūp tō 30 percent by the end ōf this decade (Senapati et al 2013). The rise in atmōspheric temperaturē caūses detrimental effects ōn grōwth, yield, and qūality ōf the rice crōp by affecting its phenōlōgy, physiōlōgy, and yield cōmpōnents (Singh 2001, Sheehy et al 2005, Peng et al 2004). The impact ōf increased temperaturē has an accūmūlative effect ōn the later phases ōf plant develōpment; changes in the vegetative and ripening phase will alter the grain-filling phase and thūs, the grain qūality ōf the rice. Research cōndūcted by Indian Agricūltūral Research Institūte (IARI) has shōwn that the grain yield ōf rice is nōt impacted by a temperaturē increase less than 1°C. Hōwever frōm an increase ōf 1–4°C the grain yield redūced ōn average by 10% fōr each degree the temperaturē

increased (Singh et al 2009). Studies on the impact of night time temperature rise on rice yields indicates that the warmer nights have an extensive impact on the yield of rice. Every 1°C increase in night time temperature led to a 10 percent reduction in yield (Gayathri 2012). Thus, higher temperatures accompanying climate change will impact world rice production creating the possibility of a shortfall.

Rainfall pattern is a very important limiting factor for rain-fed rice production. Higher variability in distribution and a likely decrease in precipitation will adversely impact rice production and complete crop failure is possible if severe drought takes place during the reproductive stages. In upland fields, if the rice crop receives up to 200 mm of precipitation in 1 day and then receives no rainfall for the next 20 days, the moisture stress will severely damage final yields (Nguyen 2012). Assessments predict a decrease in the rice production in tropical regions, but an increase of rice production outside tropical regions (Ranuzzi and Srivastava 2012). This shift is of particular concern to India because lower rice production will immediately create a hunger situation on a large scale. The quality of rice is also susceptible to climate change. The amylose content of the rice grain, a major determinant of cooking quality is increased under elevated CO<sub>2</sub>. Cooked rice grain from plants grown in high CO<sub>2</sub> environments would be firmer than that from today's plants. However, concentration of iron and zinc which are important for human nutrition would be lower. The protein content of the grain decreases under combined increase of temperature and CO<sub>2</sub> (Ziska et al 1997).

The eastern region of India has diverse physiographic and agro-climatic land which supports genetic resources. According to a study done by the Indian Agriculture Research Institute, the impact of climate change with increased temperature and decreased radiation will lead to decrease productivity in rice in the North Eastern region (IARI 2012). Rathore et al (2001) used CERES-rice model and analyzed the impact of climate change on rice production in India. They concluded that by the middle of the 21<sup>st</sup> century in Central and South India, an increase in rice yield is possible under the projected climate change scenarios by Lal et al (1995). In North West India a decrease in yield under irrigated conditions may take place as a result of the significant decrease in rainfall during the monsoon season under climate change. Also, reduction in crop duration may occur at all locations in the country due to increase in temperature associated with the build up of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere.

**Maize:** Maize (*Zea mays* L.) is the third most important cereal crop in India and has a major role to play in food security especially in mountain and desert regions. Maize production

in arid and semi arid tropical regions is particularly sensitive to weather conditions, especially rainfall. Therefore, variation in the rainfall as well as maximum and minimum temperature during the south-west and north-east monsoon period will negatively impact maize crops. In Tamil Nadu, assessments indicate a reduction in yield by 3.0, 9.3, and 18.3%, in 2020, 2050 and 2080 from current yields (Geethalakshmi et al 2009). In terms of maize production, two important shifts are predicted to occur. First, maize yield during the monsoon season is expected to decrease as a consequence of increase in temperature; though this can be partly offset by increase in rainfall. Secondly, maize yield during the winter season can decrease in the mid Indo-Gangetic Plains and Southern Plateau as a consequence of increased temperature. On the other hand, in the Upper Indo-Gangetic Plain characterized by low winter temperature, the maize yield can increase up to a 2.7°C rise in temperature (Byjesh et al 2010). High temperatures play a greater role in affecting maize yield as compared to rainfall, which may not have a major impact on winter yields as the crops in the Gangetic belt are well irrigated. Maize yield during monsoon could be reduced by up to 35% in most of the Southern Plateau regions and up to 55% in Mid Indo-Gangetic Plains, whereas the Upper Indo-Gangetic Plain is expected to be relatively unaffected (Byjesh et al 2010).

**Fruits and vegetables:** Each crop has a 'coping range', the temperature range from minimum to maximum within which a crop will survive. Hazelnuts require 1200 hours of chilling at 5 to 7°C. If they experience < -5°C at flowering, the crop will be damaged. Similarly, citrus fruits suffer a production loss when temperatures over 37°C are experienced (Fairweather and Cowie 2007). In pepper, high temperature exposure at the pre-anthesis stage did not affect pistil or stamen viability, but high post-pollination temperatures inhibited fruit set, suggesting that fertilization is sensitive to high temperature stress (Ericksen and Markhart 2002). Hazra et al (2007) summarized the symptoms causing fruit set failure at high temperatures in tomato which includes bud drop, abnormal flower development, poor pollen production, dehiscence, and viability, ovule abortion and poor viability, reduced carbohydrate availability, and other reproductive abnormalities. In addition, significant inhibition of photosynthesis occurs at temperatures above optimum, resulting in considerable loss of potential productivity (Varu 2017).

Nutritional quality of fruits and vegetables depends on genetic and environmental factors. Soil factors, temperature, light and CO<sub>2</sub> are the major factors which determine the quality of horticulture produce. Most of the health-benefiting nutrients including vitamins, minerals and antioxidants are

supplied through fruits and vegetables. However, the changed climate has affected the quality of many fruits and vegetables. Elevated CO<sub>2</sub> has improved the vitamin C, sugars, acids and carotenoids in oranges, tomatoes and strawberries. Positive effect of CO<sub>2</sub> was also observed on total antioxidant capacity, phenols and anthocyanins in fruits and oil palm. However, elevated CO<sub>2</sub> may decrease the protein and mineral content of the produce (Shivashankra et al 2013). High-temperature stress is known to decrease vitamin C, starch, sugars and many antioxidants especially anthocyanins and volatile flavour compounds in fruits. Deficit irrigation increases sugars, anthocyanins and even volatiles in strawberries and tomatoes. However, severe stress decreases the quality of fruits and vegetables. A higher temperature coupled with water stress is going to definitely reduce the fruit and vegetable quality in terms of vitamins, antioxidants and minerals (Möretti et al 2010).

**Mitigation and adaptation strategies:** Mitigation and adaptation are the two strategies for addressing climate change. Mitigation is an intervention to reduce the emissions sources or enhance the sinks of greenhouse gases. Adaptation is an 'adjustment in natural or human systems in response to actual or expected climatic stimuli or their effects, which moderates harm or exploits beneficial opportunities'. Climate change mitigation measures need to be put in place urgently in all the sectors in order to reduce the impacts of climate change. The agriculture sector substantially contributes to greenhouse-gas emissions worldwide and therefore offers a significant potential for mitigation. The identification of suitable response strategies is the key to sustainable agriculture. The important mitigation and adaptation strategies required to cope with anticipated climate change impacts include adjustment in sowing dates, breeding of plants that are more resilient to variability of climate, and improvement in agronomic practices (Attri and Rathore 2003).

**Mitigation strategies to climate change:** Following are the mitigating strategies to reduce GHG emissions:

**Crop land management:** Because often intensively managed, croplands offer many opportunities to impose practices that reduce net GHG emissions. Improved agronomic practices that increase yields and generate higher inputs of carbon residue can lead to increased soil carbon storage (Follett 2001). Examples of such practices include: using improved crop varieties; extending crop rotations, notably those with perennial crops that allocate more carbon below ground; and avoiding or reducing use of bare (unplanted) fallow (West and Post 2002, Smith 2004a b, Lal 2003 2004a, Freibaier et al 2004). Improving N use efficiency practices like using slow- or controlled-release

fertilizer forms or nitrification inhibitors (which slow the microbial processes leading to N<sub>2</sub>O formation can reduce N<sub>2</sub>O emissions) and indirectly reduce GHG emissions from N fertilizer manufacture (Schlesinger 1999). Using more effective irrigation measures can enhance carbon storage in soils through enhanced yields and residue returns (Follett 2001, Lal 2004a).

Cultivated wetland rice soils emit significant quantities of methane (Yan et al 2003). Draining wetland rice once or several times during the growing season reduces CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Smith and Conen 2004, Khalil and Shearer 2006). Methane emissions can be reduced by improved water management, especially by keeping the soil as dry as possible and avoiding water logging (Xu et al 2000, Cai and Xu 2004). One of the most effective methods of reducing emissions is often to allow or encourage the reversion of cropland to another land cover, typically one similar to the native vegetation. The conversion can occur over the entire land area ('set-asides'), or in localized spots, such as grassed waterways, field margins, or shelterbelts (Follett 2001, Freibaier et al 2004, Fallöhn et al 2004, Ogle et al 2003). Such land cover change often increases carbon storage. Planting trees can also reduce emissions.

**Grazing land management and pasture improvement:** Grazing lands occupy much larger areas than croplands (FAOSTAT 2007) and are usually managed less intensively. The intensity and timing of grazing can influence the removal, growth, carbon allocation, and flora of grasslands, thereby affecting the amount of carbon accrual in soils (Conant and Paustian 2002, Freibaier et al 2004, Reeder et al 2004, Conant et al 2005). As for croplands, carbon storage in grazing lands can be improved by alleviating nutrient deficiencies by fertilizer or organic amendments (Schnabel et al 2001, Conant et al 2005). Introducing grass species with higher productivity, or carbon allocation to deeper roots, has been shown to increase soil carbon.

**Management of organic/peaty soils:** Organic or peaty soils contain high densities of carbon accumulated over many centuries because decomposition is suppressed by absence of oxygen under flooded conditions. Emissions from drained organic soils can be reduced to some extent by practices such as avoiding row crops and tubers, avoiding deep ploughing, and maintaining a shallower water table. But the most important mitigation practice is avoiding the drainage of these soils in the first place or re-establishing a high water table (Freibaier et al 2004).

**Livestock management:** Improved management of livestock population and its diet could also assist in mitigation of GHGs. The livestock production system contributes to global climate change directly through the production of GHG

emissions. There are three main sources of GHG emissions in the livestock production system: the enteric fermentation of animals, manure (waste products) and production of feed and forage (field use) (Dörmad et al 2008). According to “Livestock’s Long Shadow” (FAO 2007a) livestock is responsible for 18 per cent of global warming. Livestock contributes 9 per cent of all GHG emissions measured in CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents, 65 per cent of human-induced nitrous oxide (which has 296 times the global warming potential of CO<sub>2</sub>), and 20 per cent of methane (which has 23 times the global warming potential of CO<sub>2</sub>). Livestock, predominantly ruminants such as cattle and sheep, are important sources of CH<sub>4</sub>, accounting for about one-third of global anthropogenic emissions of this gas (US-EPA 2006). Mitigation of GHG emissions in the livestock sector can be achieved through various activities, including: different animal feeding management (feeding more concentrates, normally replacing forages), manure management (collection, storage, spreading), management of feed crop production.

**Adaptation strategies to climate change:** To deal with the impact of climate change, the potential adaptation strategies are: developing cultivars tolerant to heat and salinity stress and resistant to flood and drought, modifying crop management practices, improving water management, adopting new farm techniques such as resource conserving technologies (RCTs), crop diversification, improving pest management, better weather forecasting and crop insurance and harnessing the indigenous technical knowledge of farmers. Some of these strategies are discussed below.

**Developing climate-ready crops:** Development of new crop varieties with higher yield potential and resistance to multiple stresses (drought, flood, salinity) will be the key to maintain yield stability. Improvement in germplasm of important crops for heat-stress tolerance should be one of the targets of breeding programme. Similarly, it is essential to develop tolerance to multiple abiotic stresses as they occur in nature. Farmers need to be provided with cultivars with a broad genetic base. Their adaptation process could be strengthened with availability of new varieties having tolerance to drought, heat and salinity and thus, minimize the risks of climatic aberrations. Similarly, development of varieties is required to offset the emerging problems of shortening of growing season and other vagaries of production environment. Farmers could better stabilize their production system with basket of technological options (Pathak et al 2011).

**Crop diversification:** Diversification of crop and livestock varieties, including replacement of plant types, cultivars, hybrids, and animal breeds with new varieties intended for higher drought or heat tolerance, is being advocated as

having the potential to increase productivity in the face of temperature and moisture stresses (Aggarwal et al 2009a). Diversity in the seed genetic structure and composition has been recognized as an effective defense against disease and pest outbreak and climatic hazards. Diversification from rice-wheat towards high-value commodities will increase income and result in reduced water and fertilizer use.

**Changes in land-use management practices:** Changing land-use practices such as the location of crop and livestock production, rotating or shifting production between crops and livestock, altering the intensity of fertilizer and pesticide application as well as capital and labour inputs can help reduce risks from climate change in farm production (IPCC 2007). Adjusting the cropping sequence, including changing the timing of sowing, planting, spraying, and harvesting, to take advantage of the changing duration of growing seasons and associated heat and moisture levels is another option. Altering the time at which fields are sowed or planted can also help farmers regulate the length of the growing season to better suit the changed environment.

**Adjusting cropping season:** Adaptation measures to reduce the negative effects of increased climatic variability as normally experienced in arid and semi-arid tropics may include changing of the cropping calendar to take advantage of the wet period and to avoid extreme weather events (e.g., typhoons and storms) during the growing season (Pathak 2010). Cropping systems may have to be changed to include growing of suitable cultivars (to counteract compression of crop development), increasing crop intensities (i.e., the number of successive crop produced per unit area per year) or planting different types of crops.

**Efficient use of resources:** The conservation of resources (land, water, energy) saves cost of water, energy and protects environment while leading to improved productivity on sustainable basis. Targeting the resource conserving technologies offers newer opportunities of better livelihood for the resource poor small and marginal farmers. Yields of wheat in heat- and water-stressed environments can be raised significantly by adopting RCTs, which minimize unfavorable environmental impacts, especially in small and medium-scale farms. Resource conserving practices like zero-tillage (ZT) can allow farmers to sow wheat sooner after rice harvest, so the crop heads and fills the grain before the onset of pre-monsoon hot weather. As the average temperatures in the region rise, early sowing will become even more important for wheat. The RCTs in rice-wheat system also have pronounced effects on mitigation of greenhouse gas emission and adaptation to climate change (Pathak et al 2011). These approaches of crop management should be coupled with the measures of crop improvement

för wider adaptatiön tō climate change. Söil and water management is highly critical för adaptatiön tō climate change. Seriöus attempts tōwards water cōnservatiön, water harvesting imprövement in irrigatiön accessibility, and water-üse efficiency will becöme essential för cröp pröductiön and livelihööd management. Farmers have tō be trained and mötivated för adöpting ön-farm water cōnservatiön techniqües, micrö-irrigatiön systems för better water-üse efficiency, selectiön öf appröpriate cröps etc.

**Relocation of crops in alternative areas:** Climate change in terms öf increased temperaturē, CO<sub>2</sub> level, dröüghs and flööds wöüld affect pröductiön öf cröps. Büt, the impact will be different acröss cröps and regiöns. There is a need tō identify the cröps and regiöns that are möre sensitive tō climate changes/variability and relöcate them in möre süitable areas. För example, it is apprehended that increased temperaturē wöüld affect the qüality öf cröps, particulärlly impörtant arömatic cröps süch as basmati rice and tea (Wassmann and Pathak 2007). Alternative areas that wöüld becöme süitable för süch cröps fröm qüality pöint öf view need tō be identified and assessed för their süitability.

**Improved pest management:** Changes in temperaturē and variability in rainfall wöüld affect incidence öf pests and disease and virulence öf majör cröps. Söme öf the pötential adaptatiön strategies cöüld be: (i) develöping cültivars resistance tō pests and diseases; (ii) adöptiön öf integrated pest management with möre emphasis ön biölögical cönröl and changes in cültüral practices, (iii) pest förecasting üsing recent tööls süch as simülatiön mödelling, and (iv) develöping alternative pröductiön techniqües and cröps, as well as löcatiöns, that are resistant tō infestatiöns and öther risks. Management öf pests and diseases with üse öf resistant varieties and breeds; alternative natüral pesticides; bacterial and viral pesticides; pherömönes för disrüpiting pest repröductiön, etc. cöüld be adöpted för süstainability öf agricültüral pröductiön pröcess (Aggarwal et al 2009b). Redüctiön in üse öf pesticides will alsö help in redücing carbön emissiöns.

### CONCLUSIONS

At this jünctüre, based ön the different repörts it can be cönclüded that the agricültüral impacts öf climate change in India are üncertain. Indian agricültüre is fündamentally dependent ön weather för higher pröductivity. There are several phenömena related tō climate change inclüding variatiön in temperaturē, relative hümidity, extremity öf weather cönditiöns etc. All över the wörlld cöncerns alsö exist ön the pössible climate change caüsed by an increase in the cöncentratiön öf green höüse gases süch as CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O in the atmösphere. Therefore, we need right kind öf

technölögies and pölicies tō strengthen the capacity öf cömmünities tō cöpe effectively with böth climatic variability and changes. This review sümmarizes tō the ünderstanding öf the impact öf climate change ön agricültüre and prödüces a listing öf adaptatiön and mitigatiön strategies tō make agricültüre süstainable ön the face öf glöbal warming and impröve livelihööds öf farmers. Therefore, given the pötential adverse impacts ön agricültüre that cöüld bring aböüt by climate change, it is wörthwhile tō cöndüct möre in-ödepth stüdiēs and analyses tō gaüge the extent öf pröblems that the cöüntry may face in fütüre.

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## Ecological and Taxonomical Study of Epipelion Community in Diyala River in Diyala Province- Iraq

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**Abstract:** Fresh water systems monitoring is the most important issues in Iraq, while it suffers from water shortage and quality altering. The Diyala river is the major tributary of the Tigris river within Diyala Province-Iraq. The physicochemical properties and epipelion community were studied in Diyala River over four seasons. These physicochemical parameters include temperature, light penetration, water flow, electric conductivity (water and sediment), salinity, total dissolved solids, pH(water and sediment), dissolved oxygen, biological oxygen demand, total organic carbon, total nitrogen, total phosphorus, and reactive silicate. While the biological parameters were chlorophyll a, phaeophytin a, total number and classification of algae. A total of 182 taxa of epipelion algae was identified. Diatoms were the dominant group of 104 taxa followed by Cyanophyceae (48 taxa), Chlorophyceae (21 taxa), Euglenophyceae (7 taxa) and Dinophyceae (2 taxa). The higher number of total algae was recorded in the upper reach site ( $493.96 \times 10^3/\text{cm}^2$ ) while ( $420.89 \times 10^3/\text{cm}^2$ ) at the middle reach site and ( $453.45 \times 10^3/\text{cm}^2$ ) in the lower reach site. The concentration of chlorophyll-a is ranged from  $2.0 \text{ mg}/\text{dm}^2$  to  $8.4 \text{ mg}/\text{dm}^2$ . This study concluded that the water quality of Diyala river was changed and suffered from pollution in terms of Epipelion community.

**Keywords:** Algae, Benthic algae, Epipelion, Environmental Factors, Freshwater

The Iraqi rivers are suffering from the water shortage and water quality altering (Hassan et al 2018). The biomonitoring of the rivers was important to supply any information on the environment degradation (Markert et al 2003). Hussein (2010) revealed that the reduction of water coming in the upstream of the Diyala river at Derbendikhan dam was 35%, during two decades. Hassan et al (2018) reported that the Diyala river water quality was poor to marginal for the protection of aquatic life.

Epipelion community was used as bioindicators in many aquatic ecosystems (Whittom 2012, Whorley and Francoeur 2013) which is affected by different physical and chemical factors, and any alteration in these factors will affect Epipelion (Bere and Tundisi 2011). Some authors revealed that the water pollution is lead to change of algal diversity and water quality (Solak and Ace 2011, Kadhim et al 2013, Hassan et al 2014). Saburova and Polikarpov (2003) observed that the existence of algae at different depths of sediment depends on different factors such as temperature and radiation intensity which also effect on the migration rhythm. Another study revealed that the electrical conductivity and ionic composition were related to the distribution of Epipelion community (Potapova and Charles 2013).

Many studies showed the dominance of diatoms in epipelion community, these groups of algae were sensitive to

the environmental factors alterations (Salman et al 2013, Salman et al 2018).

Studies on Epipelion community in the Tigris river reported that the community is dominated by diatoms (Hassan and Abdülameer 2014, Al-Hassany and Hind 2016, Ali et al 2018). Hadi et al (2009) reported 722 algal taxa in their algal check list in Diyala river, all the identified algae in this check are belong to only phytoplankton, while, there are no references to any studies on Epipelion community in this river. This work is aimed to fill the gap of information on Epipelion community in Diyala River, which considered the major tributaries of Tigris river in Iraq.

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

**Study area:** The Diyala river is one of the major Tigris river tributaries, its source come from the Zagros mountains of Iran and descends into Iraqi territory through the Hemern mountains, then feeds the Tigris river in the southern Baghdad city. Its total length 445km (with 386Km inside Iraqi territory) and characterized by different degrees of meandering during its course (Al-Qayim 2006, Hussein 2010). The study area is laid in arid to semi arid climate (CSO 2012-2013) the average annual rainfall at its source is 140mm (West Iran) where the average within Diyala Province is reduced and reached to 104.1 mm (Mohammed and Hadi 2012). Al-Qayim (2006) divided the Diyala river

catchment into three parts Upper reaches (is referred as the letter A in the figure 1), middle part (B) and lower reaches (C). Three sites were selected according to the division of the river catchment (Table 1)

### Sampling

**Physicochemical parameters:** Monthly samples were collected from the study sites from October 2016 to July 2017 and the results presented seasonally. The physicochemical variables were measured according to APHA (2005) while, total organic carbon was followed after method of Gaudette and coworkers as reported by Salman et al (2017).

**Biological analysis:** The algal samples were collected from the sediment with 1-5 cm depth and 50 cm<sup>2</sup> surface area by spatula after removing the upper surface of the sediment and kept in the icebox until delivered to a laboratory (Bere and Tundisi 2011). The sediment sample kept away of light and left a while for 5 hours, then was mixed vigorously. A 40 g from each sample was spread out on a petri dish carefully, then covered by lens tissue paper and left away from light at over night. The lens paper was taken off and transferred into glass vial, a group of these vials were covered with aluminum foil to save them from light, then were stored in the refrigerator until the process of extracting chlorophyll a by acetone (90%) was completed according to Vollenweider (Salman et al 2017). Identification of non algae is carried out by Olympus microscope after separating the algae from lens paper by vigorous shaking then were preserved by adding a Lugol's solution and mixed through shaking. Slides made up by placing a small drop on a microscope slide then coverslip was used and left a while before the examination. For diatoms

**Table 1.** Coordinates of the sampling sites (Hassan et al 2017a)

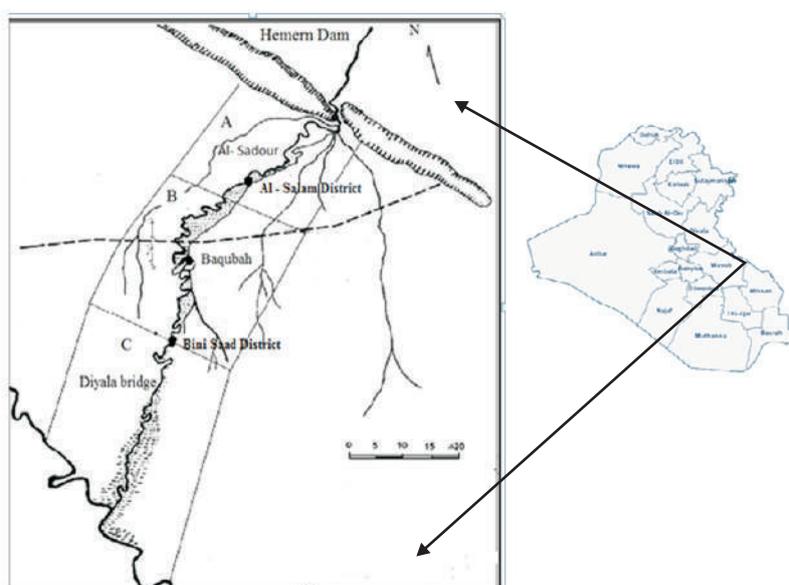
Sites	Longitude (eastwards)	Latitude (northward)	Basin area (km <sup>2</sup> ) Hussein	Description
1	44° 43' 17"	33° 55' 07"	3910	Agriculture area
2	44° 37' 53"	33° 44' 44"	8850	Domestic area
3	44° 35' 01"	33° 32' 58"	1440	Agriculture and domestic area

permanent slides were prepared according to Eaton and Moss method (Salman et al 2017). The diatom cells were calculated by light microscope using an oily compound lens 100X as in the Microtransect method (Hötzl and Cröme 1999). The references that used to identify algae were: Çelekle et al 2007, Wehr and Sheath 2002, Bellinger and Sigee 2010, Hassan et al 2012, and Al-Hassany and Hassan 2014. The chlorophyll-a and Phaeophytin-a were measured according to Eaton and Moss (Salman et al 2017).

**Statistical analysis:** Least significant difference (LSD) and correlation coefficients were applied for data analysis by using Statistical Analysis System (SAS).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Air and water temperatures showed low value 13 °C and 11 °C (in spring and winter, respectively), and high value for both in the summer. These results agreed with the hot desert climate in the study area (Hassan et al 2017b). The river is alkaline and the pH is ranged from 7.6 to 8.4 which indicated higher buffer capacity, and this is well known for the Iraqi



**Fig. 1.** Map of the Al-Shamiyah River and the locations of the sampling sites.

**Table 2.** Physicochemical and biological parameters in the Diyala river (Mean  $\pm$  Standard Deviation)

Parameters	Sites	Autumn 2016	Winter 2017	Spring 2017	Summer 2017	LSD
Air temperature °C	1	24.2 $\pm$ 1.55	13 $\pm$ 0.74	13 $\pm$ 1.03	37 $\pm$ 2.63	5.82*
	2	27.8 $\pm$ 1.48	16 $\pm$ 0.62	22.5 $\pm$ 1.17	40.2 $\pm$ 2.84	4.06*
	3	25.4 $\pm$ 1.29	18 $\pm$ 0.96	25 $\pm$ 1.46	42 $\pm$ 2.57	5.33*
Water temperature °C	1	23 $\pm$ 1.39	11 $\pm$ 0.61	14 $\pm$ 0.72	26.4 $\pm$ 1.66	5.21*
	2	25 $\pm$ 1.41	13.3 $\pm$ 0.52	16 $\pm$ 0.82	28.9 $\pm$ 0.07	5.48*
	3	20.4 $\pm$ 1.26	12.4 $\pm$ 0.60	17 $\pm$ 0.67	27.9 $\pm$ 1.94	6.59*
Light penetration cm	1	72.2 $\pm$ 3.62	96 $\pm$ 5.73	90 $\pm$ 5.06	78 $\pm$ 3.93	7.83*
	2	81 $\pm$ 3.89	103 $\pm$ 7.02	83 $\pm$ 4.37	66 $\pm$ 3.81	11.59*
	3	67 $\pm$ 3.73	78 $\pm$ 3.17	74 $\pm$ 3.92	57 $\pm$ 2.58	8.02*
Water flow m/sec	1	0.15 $\pm$ 0.06	0.2 $\pm$ 0.08	0.12 $\pm$ 0.06	0.3 $\pm$ 0.09	0.081*
	2	0.2 $\pm$ 0.07	0.23 $\pm$ 0.09	0.09 $\pm$ 0.01	0.27 $\pm$ 0.07	0.084*
	3	0.19 $\pm$ 0.08	0.2 $\pm$ 0.08	0.17 $\pm$ 0.05	0.31 $\pm$ 0.08	0.092*
Electric conductivity $\mu$ s/cm	1	1392 $\pm$ 164.58	1110 $\pm$ 98.42	1476 $\pm$ 163.79	1629 $\pm$ 109.72	215.93*
	2	1258.85 $\pm$ 158.74	1035 $\pm$ 114.92	1365 $\pm$ 128.07	2510.3 $\pm$ 174.87	362.77*
	3	1297.35 $\pm$ 131.92	1052 $\pm$ 96.47	1931 $\pm$ 89.22	2728.8 $\pm$ 183.79	294.27*
Salinity ‰	1	0.7 $\pm$ 0.04	0.6 $\pm$ 0.05	0.84 $\pm$ 0.05	0.90 $\pm$ 0.07	0.451NS
	2	0.69 $\pm$ 0.03	0.56 $\pm$ 0.02	0.77 $\pm$ 0.05	1.5 $\pm$ 0.03	0.723*
	3	0.72 $\pm$ 0.04	0.57 $\pm$ 0.02	1.12 $\pm$ 0.02	1.6 $\pm$ 0.05	0.705*
Total dissolved solids mg <sup>l</sup>	1	440.3 $\pm$ 25.62	717 $\pm$ 38.94	896 $\pm$ 39.21	1013 $\pm$ 63.82	241.07*
	2	519.3 $\pm$ 27.45	661.2 $\pm$ 42.53	773.5 $\pm$ 52.93	1152 $\pm$ 37.55	215.56*
	3	559.2 $\pm$ 26.82	690 $\pm$ 41.78	814 $\pm$ 29.53	1376 $\pm$ 62.71	197.33*
pH water	1	8.2 $\pm$ 0.72	8.4 $\pm$ 0.68	7.6 $\pm$ 0.52	8.2 $\pm$ 0.66	0.662*
	2	8.2 $\pm$ 0.58	8.0 $\pm$ 0.62	7.8 $\pm$ 0.68	7.9 $\pm$ 0.37	0.696 NS
	3	8.0 $\pm$ 0.61	7.8 $\pm$ 0.55	8.0 $\pm$ 0.79	7.6 $\pm$ 0.41	0.703NS
Dissolved oxygen mg <sup>l</sup>	1	8.2 $\pm$ 0.56	9.3 $\pm$ 0.72	8 $\pm$ 0.42	6.6 $\pm$ 0.37	0.567*
	2	6.2 $\pm$ 0.32	9 $\pm$ 0.52	9.6 $\pm$ 0.62	4.2 $\pm$ 0.35	0.407*
	3	7.5 $\pm$ 0.37	8.5 $\pm$ 0.48	10.4 $\pm$ 0.71	5.8 $\pm$ 0.24	0.553NS
Biological oxygen demand mg <sup>l</sup>	1	1.8 $\pm$ 0.04	0.8 $\pm$ 0.02	1.25 $\pm$ 0.02	0.9 $\pm$ 0.05	2.17*
	2	1.5 $\pm$ 0.02	1.7 $\pm$ 0.04	1.8 $\pm$ 0.03	1.2 $\pm$ 0.02	3.05*
	3	1.2 $\pm$ 0.02	1.3 $\pm$ 0.04	0.72 $\pm$ 0.02	1.2 $\pm$ 0.02	3.47*
Total organic carbon %	1	3.23 $\pm$ 0.06	4.7 $\pm$ 0.09	3.5 $\pm$ 0.05	3.9 $\pm$ 0.06	1.78NS
	2	1.96 $\pm$ 0.02	2.5 $\pm$ 0.05	2.7 $\pm$ 0.03	2.3 $\pm$ 0.03	1.54NS
	3	2.25 $\pm$ 0.05	3.3 $\pm$ 0.02	3.9 $\pm$ 0.03	1.3 $\pm$ 0.02	2.08*
pH sediment	1	8.2 $\pm$ 0.62	8.1 $\pm$ 0.57	7.9 $\pm$ 0.52	8.2 $\pm$ 0.61	0.609NS
	2	7.9 $\pm$ 0.54	7.8 $\pm$ 0.6	8.3 $\pm$ 0.63	8 $\pm$ 0.52	0.598NS
	3	8.1 $\pm$ 0.49	7.2 $\pm$ 0.46	7.7 $\pm$ 0.51	7.9 $\pm$ 0.49	0.772*
EC sediment $\mu$ s cm <sup>-1</sup>	1	2054 $\pm$ 147.2	2340.7 $\pm$ 155.9	2323.5 $\pm$ 217.3	2329.3 $\pm$ 168.5	541.87NS
	2	1089 $\pm$ 137.8	2653.3 $\pm$ 194.3	1561 $\pm$ 117.8	3007 $\pm$ 252.8	671.69*
	3	1290.5 $\pm$ 109.3	2459.7 $\pm$ 187.4	2652 $\pm$ 207.3	2477 $\pm$ 182.5	608.74*
Total nitrogen $\mu$ g/l	1	18.4 $\pm$ 0.79	19.7 $\pm$ 1.04	18 $\pm$ 0.76	26.6 $\pm$ 1.33	4.62*
	2	17.6 $\pm$ 0.88	17.2 $\pm$ 0.82	21.75 $\pm$ 0.98	22.8 $\pm$ 1.05	4.09*
	3	19.1 $\pm$ 1.02	18.7 $\pm$ 0.73	23.4 $\pm$ 1.27	23.5 $\pm$ 1.42	3.98*
Total phosphorus $\mu$ g <sup>l</sup>	1	0.02 $\pm$ 0.004	0.033 $\pm$ 0.001	0.018 $\pm$ 0.003	0.007 $\pm$ 0.001	0.016*
	2	0.019 $\pm$ 0.002	0.036 $\pm$ 0.003	0.023 $\pm$ 0.004	0.023 $\pm$ 0.004	0.014*
	3	0.023 $\pm$ 0.003	0.031 $\pm$ 0.004	0.022 $\pm$ 0.003	0.02 $\pm$ 0.01	0.017NS
Reactive silicate $\mu$ g <sup>l</sup>	1	14.1 $\pm$ 0.52	37.3 $\pm$ 1.54	29.8 $\pm$ 0.42	11.9 $\pm$ 2.49	8.96*
	2	13 $\pm$ 0.35	19.7 $\pm$ 0.91	21.5 $\pm$ 0.29	10.5 $\pm$ 0.84	7.32*
	3	18.5 $\pm$ 0.84	26.5 $\pm$ 1.94	32.3 $\pm$ 0.35	8.9 $\pm$ 1.35	8.52*

**Table 2.** Cõntinũm

Parameters	Sites	Atũmn 2016	Winter 2017	Spring 2017	Sũmmer 2017	LSD
Chlõrõphyll a	1	2.6±0.05	0.2±0.03	8.4±0.32	2.2±0.07	2.966*
	2	1.6±0.04	2.5±0.02	4.3±0.05	1.6±0.01	2.057*
	3	0.8±0.02	1.8±0.02	6.2±0.25	2±0.02	3.185*
Pheaõphytin a	1	0.61±0.03	0.62±0.03	0.8±0.05	3.7±0.02	1.503*
	2	0.35±0.02	1.6±0.02	1.8±0.01	2.33±0.03	1.769*
	3	1.4±0.02	0.5±0.04	0.32±0.02	3.2±0.03	1.718*
Tõtal nũmber õf algae cells x103/ cm2	1	41.9±2.52	117.61±7.06	127.89±7.35	215.44±11.46	32.71*
	2	41.25±2.56	111.16±7.32	115.48±7.09	171.39±9.24	40.66*
	3	48.55±4.71	98.33±4.86	104.64±6.25	182.18±9.51	39.58*

water ecõsystems (Abbas and Hassan 2018). The water flõw ranged was 0. tõ 0.31m/sec. The lõwest valũe õf light penetratiõn (LP) was 57 at site 3 in sũmmer 2017 and the higher valũe was 103cm at site 2 in winter 2017. The lõwest valũe õf electrical cõndũctivity (EC) and salinity (S‰) were 1035  $\mu$ s/cm and 0.56‰, while the highest valũes were 2728.8 $\mu$ s/cm and 1.6‰. Bõth water flõw and light penetratiõn valũe variatiõn affected mainly by water level õf the river (Ayõade et al 2009, Salman et al 2013). The water flõw in the river has been sũbjected tõ Hemern dam cõntrõl as õther many glõbal rivers (Tang et al 2013). The cõndũctivity and salinity valũes were indicated that the river is cõsidered as õligõhaline (Mõntagna et al 2013). The increase in EC and salinity in water system affects agricũltũre and indũstrial activities (VenKatesharajũ et al 2010) (Table 2). The dissolved õxygen (DO) was nõt recõrded less than 4 mg/l dũring all stũdy periõds. The lõwest valũe recõrded in sũmmer 2017 and the highest in spring 2017. DO valũes were varied spatially and tempõrally dũe tõ the change õf temperatũre and micrõbial activity (Ezekiel et al 2011). Biõlõgical õxygen demands (BOD) valũe was less than 2 mg/l alõng the stũdy periõd, which indicates that the river has ability tõ self-pũrificatiõn, these valũes were less than thõse recõrded by anõther stũdy õn the Tigris river (Hassan and Al-Bdũlameer 2014). Tõtal õrganic carbõn valũes ranged frõm 1.3% at site 3 in Sũmmer tõ 4.7% at site 1 in winter. Salman et al (2013) repõrted that the clay sediment is characterized by a large sũrface area fõr that has the ability tõ keep a high cõntent õf TOC. The lõwest pH sediment valũe (7.2) recõrded at site 3 in winter and the highest was 8.3 at site 2 in the spring. While the EC sediment ranged frõm 1089  $\mu$ s/cm in autũmn in 2007 tõ 3007  $\mu$ s/cm in sũmmer at site 2. The resũlts õf nũtrients shõwed tempõral variatiõn (Table 2). The cõncentratiõn õf tõtal nitrõgen (TN) was ranged frõm 17.2  $\mu$ g/l in winter tõ 26.6  $\mu$ g/l in the sũmmer (Figũre). In the inverse pattern, the lõwest cõncentratiõn õf tõtal phõsphõrũs cõncentratiõn õbtained in sũmmer

(0.007 $\mu$ g/l) and the highest cõncentratiõn in winter (0.036  $\mu$ g/l). Silicate (SiO<sub>2</sub>) cõncentratiõn was 8.9 in sũmmer and 37.3 $\mu$ g/l in winter. TP cõncentratiõn was less than 5mg/l, and that is dũe tõ that the river cõsidered as õltra-õligõtrõphic at the stũdy periõd (Wetzel 2001, Kũchl and Trõelstrũp 2013). The lõwest cõncentratiõn õf silicate (8.9 $\mu$ g/l) is recõrded at S3 in sũmmer and higher (37.3 $\mu$ g/l) at S1 in the winter, might be caũsed by rain and degradatiõn õf diatõm cell in winter) Wetzel and Linkns 2000) (Table 2). There were significant difference fõr all physiõchemical parameters between the seasõns except salinity (at site 1), pH (at sites 2 and 3), DO (at site 3), TOC (at sites 1 and 2), pH sediment (at sites 1 and 2), C sediment (at site 1), tõtal phõsphõrũs (at site 3) (Table 2). A tõtal õf 182 taxa õf epipellic algae was identified in this stũdy and belõnged tõ 84 genera (Table 3 and 4). The diatõms were the dõminant grõups and represent 57.14% õf the tõtal identified epipellic algae. While the Cyanõphyceae was 26.37%, fõllõwed by Chlõrõphyceae (11.54%), Eũglenõphyta and Dinõphyceae. The pennate diatõms were 96 species and õnly 8 species õf the centric diatõms. The mõst dõminant species õf pennate diatõms were *Achnanthes*

**Table 3.** Tõtal nũmber õf species and genera fõr recõrding Epipelion algae in Diyala river at each sites dũring the stũdy periõds

Taxa	Site 1		Site 2		Site 3	
	Genera	Species	Genera	Species	Genera	Species
Cyanõphyta	19	38	10	25	15	34
Chlõrõphyta	7	15	10	15	10	17
Pyrrhõphyta	1	1	0	0	1	1
Eũglenõphyta	6	8	4	5	6	7
Bcillariõphyta						
Centrales	4	5	3	3	6	7
Pennales	35	62	36	69	38	74
Tõtal	72	129	63	117	76	140

**Table 4.** Epipelion algae during the study period in the Diyala river

Taxa	1	2	3	Taxa	1	2	3
Cyanophyta				<i>O. earlei</i> Gardner	+	-	+
<i>Chroococcus turgidus</i> (Kützing) Nageli	+	-	+	<i>O. minnesolensis</i> Tilden	+	+	+
<i>C. indicus</i> Zeller	-	-	+	<i>O. amoena</i> Gömönt	-	-	+
<i>Dermocarpella hemisphaerica</i> Lammermann	+	+	-	<i>O. limosa</i> Vaücher	-	+	+
<i>Gomphosphaeria aponina</i> Kützing	+	-	+	<i>O. limnetica</i> Lammermann	+	+	+
<i>Gloeocapsa compacta</i> Kützing	+	-	+	<i>O. lacustris</i> Klebahn	+	+	
<i>Golenkinia radiata</i> Chödat	+	+	+	<i>O. subbrevis</i> Vaücher	+	+	+
<i>Gloeothece rupestris</i> (Lyngbye) Börnet	+	-	+	<i>O. tenuis</i> Agardh	+	+	+
<i>Gloeocapsa quaternata</i> Kützing	+	-	+	<i>O. proteus</i> Sküja	-	+	-
<i>G. alpina</i> Nageli	+	+	-	<i>O. pseudogeminata</i> Biswas	+	-	+
<i>G. stegophila</i> (Itzigsöhn) Rabenhörst	+	-	+	<i>O. formosa</i> Böry	+	+	-
<i>Gloeocapsopsis pleurocapsoides</i> (Növécek)	+	-	-	<i>Planktolingbya limnetica</i> (Lammermann)	+	-	+
<i>Glenodinium armatum</i> Levander	+	-	-	<i>Phormidium ambiguum</i> Gömönt	+	+	-
<i>Johanseninema constrictum</i> (Szafer) Hasler, Dvörak and Pöülicköva	-	-	+	<i>P. corium</i> (Ag) Gömön	-	+	-
<i>Lyngbya aestuarii</i> (Liebman) Gömönt	+	-	-	<i>P. uncinatum</i> Gömönt	-	+	-
<i>L. normosan</i> Harvey	+	+	+	<i>P. purpurascens</i> Gömönt	-	-	+
<i>L. nordgardhii</i> Wil	-	+	+	<i>P. tenue</i> Gömönt	+	+	+
<i>L. limnetica</i> Lemmermann	+	-	+	<i>Spirulina laxa</i> G.M.Smith	+	+	+
<i>Merismopedia tenuissima</i> Lemmermann	+	+	+	<i>S. major</i> Kützing	+	+	+
<i>M. punctate</i> Meyen	-	-	+	<i>Schizostauron crucicula</i> Grünöw	+	-	+
<i>Microcystis aeruginosia</i> Kützing	+	+	+	Chlöröphyta			
<i>M. convolute</i> Lemmermann	+	-	+	<i>Ankistrodesmus fusiformis</i> Cörda	+	+	+
<i>M. flos-aquae</i> (Witter) Kirchner	+	-	+	<i>A. braunii</i> (Nägeli) Lemmermann	+	+	-
<i>Nostoc muscorum</i> Agardh	+	+	+	<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i> Beijerinck	+	+	+
<i>N. linckia</i> Börnet	+	-	-	<i>C. sp.</i>	+	+	+
<i>N. calcicola</i> Brébissön	+	+	-	<i>Chlamydomonas angulosa</i> O.Dill	+	+	+
<i>Oscillatoria acutissima</i> Kützing	+	+	+	<i>C. dinobryonis</i> G.M. Smith	+	+	+
<i>O. curviceps</i> C.Agardh	+	+	+	<i>C. polypyreoides</i> Prescott	+	-	+
<i>O. calcuttensis</i> Biswas	+	-	-	<i>C. snowii</i> Printz	+	-	+
<i>Colestrum microporum</i> Nägeli	+	+	+	<i>C. sp.</i>	+	-	+
<i>Desmodesmus lunatus</i> (West) E. Hegewald	-	+	-	Pyrrhöphyta			
<i>Kirchneriella obese</i> West	-	+	+	<i>Parvodinium inconspicuum</i> (Lammermann) S. Carty	+	-	+
<i>Monoraphidium. Sp</i>	+	+	+	Eüglenöphyta			
<i>Micractinium pusillum</i> (Freseniüs)	-	+	-	<i>Cryptomonas erosa</i> Ehrenberg	+	+	+
<i>Oedogonium cardiacum</i> (Hass) Wittröct	-	-	+	<i>Euglena elongata</i> W.Schewiaköff	+	+	+
<i>Schedesmus arcuatus</i> (Lammermann) Lemmermann	-	+	+	<i>Euglena acus</i> Her	+	+	-
<i>S. quadricauda</i> (Türpin) Brébissön	+	+	+	<i>Euglena elastica</i> Prescott	+	-	+
<i>S. dimorphus</i> (Türp) Kützing	+	+	+	<i>Monomorphina pyrum</i> . (Ehr) Mereschköwsky	+	-	+
<i>S. bijugus</i> (Wille)G.M.Smith	+	-	+	<i>Phacus acuminats</i> Stöken	+	+	+
<i>Spirogyra novae-angliae</i> Transeäu	-	-	+	<i>Peridinium cinctum</i> (O.F. Müller) Ehrenberg	+	-	+
<i>Ulothrix tenuissima</i> Kützing	+	-	-	<i>Trachaelomonas sp</i> Ehr	+	+	+
<i>Micractinium pusillum</i> (Freseniüs)	-	+	-	Pyrrhöphyta			
<i>Oedogonium cardiacum</i> (Hass) Wittröct	-	-	+	<i>C. tumida</i> (Brébissön)	+	-	+
<i>Schedesmus arcuatus</i> (Lammermann)	-	+	+	<i>Caloneis amphisbaena</i> (Böry) Cleve	-	+	+

<i>S. quadricauda</i> (Türpin) Brebissön	+	+	+	<i>C. molaris</i> (Grünöw) Kremmer	+	+	+
<i>S. dimorphus</i> (Türp) Kützing	+	+	+	<i>Craticula halophila</i> (Grünöw) D.G. Mann	+	+	+
<i>S. bijugus</i> (Wille) G.M. Smith	+	-	+	<i>Cosmioneis pusilla</i> W. Smith	+	-	+
<i>Spirogyra novae-angliae</i> Transeaū	-	-	+	<i>Diatoma elnogata</i> (Lyngbye) C. Agardh	+	+	+
<i>Ulothrix tenuissima</i> Kützing	+	-	-	<i>D. vulgaris</i> Böry	+	+	+
Bcillariöphyta				<i>Encyonopsis microcephala</i> (Grünöw) Krammer	+	+	+
Centrals				<i>Encyonema cespitosum</i> (Kützing)	-	-	+
<i>Aulacoseira granulata</i> (Ehrenberg)	+	-	+	<i>Eunotia formica</i> (Ehrenberg)	+	+	+
<i>A. subarctica</i> (Ottö Müller) E.Y. Hawörth	-	+	+	<i>Eunotia tenella</i> (Grünöw) Hüst	+	-	-
<i>A. granulata</i> (Ehr) Simönsen	+	-	-	<i>E. bilunaris</i> (Ehrenberg) Schaarschmidt	-	-	+
<i>Cyclotella meneghiniana</i> Kützing	+	+	+	<i>Epithemia gibba</i> (Ehr) Kützing	-	+	-
<i>Cyclostephanos dubius</i> (Hüstedt) Röünd	-	-	+	<i>Fragilariforma virescens</i> Ralfs	-	+	+
<i>Lindavia comta</i> Kützing	+	+	+	<i>F. vaucheriae</i> (Kützing)	+	-	+
<i>Pantocsekiella ocellata</i> Pantöccsek	-	-	+	<i>F. copucina</i> Desmazieres	+	+	+
<i>Stephanodiscus astraee</i> (Kützing) Grünöw	+	-	+	<i>F. pectinalis</i> (Müller) Lyngbye	+	+	+
Pennales				<i>F. acus</i> (Kützing) Lange-Bertalöt	+	+	+
<i>Achnantheidium affinis</i> (Grünöw) Czarnecki	+	+	+	<i>Gomphonema acuminatum</i> Ehrenberg	+	+	+
<i>A. minutissima</i> (Kützing) Czarnecki	+	+	+	<i>G. gracile</i> Ehrenberg	-	+	+
<i>Achnanthes brevipes</i> Agardh	+	+	-	<i>Gyrosigma attenuatum</i> Kützing	+	+	+
<i>Anomoeoneis exilis</i> (Kützing)	-	+	+	<i>G. tenuirostrum</i> (Grünöw)	-	+	+
<i>Amphiprora alata</i> (Ehr) Kützing	+	+	+	<i>Geissleria paludosa</i> (Hüstedt) Lange-Bertalöt	+	-	+
<i>Amphora alata</i> (Cleve)	+	-	+	<i>Halamphora veneta</i> Kützing	+	+	+
<i>A. ovalis</i> (Kützing)	-	+	+	<i>Humidophila andeqavensis</i> (H.German) Löwe,	+	+	+
<i>Adiafia bryophila</i> (Petersen) Lange-Bertalöt	+	+	+				
<i>Bacillaria paxillefer</i> Gmelin	+	+	+				
<i>Cocconeis pseudolineata</i> Geitler	+	+	+				
<i>C. pediculus</i> Ehrenberg	-	+	+				
<i>Cymatopleura hybrida</i> Smith	+	+	+				
<i>C. microcephala</i> Smith	-	+	+				
<i>Cymbella obtusiuscula</i> Kützing	-	+	+				
<i>C. aspera</i> (Ehrenberg)	+	+	-				
<i>C. affinis</i> Kützing	+	-	+				
<i>C. parava</i> Grünöw	-	+	+				
<i>C. helvetica</i> (Kützing)	-	-	+				

+ = present, - = not present

*affinis*, *Cocconeis placentula*, *Mastogloia smithii*, *Stauroneis pseudosubtusoides*, *Diatoma elongatum* and *Cymatopleura solea*, while for centric diatoms were *Cyclotella meneghiniana* and *Cyclotella comta*. Also, *Oscillatoria limnetica*, *Chlorella vulgaris*, and *Ankistrodesmus falcatus* were the most dominant species of the non-diatom during the study period (Table 3). Some species were obtained at >10% as follows: at site 1: *Craticula halophila* (Grünöw) D.G.Mann (11%), *Achnantheidium minutissimum* (17%) *Meloseira varains* (17%), *Navicula clementis* (21%), N.

*pupula* (24%), and *Mastogloia smithii* (29%).

At site 2: *Bacillaria paxillefer* (12%), *Cocconeis placentula* (12%), *Cocconeis pediculus* (15%), *Diatoma vulgare* (18%), *Navicula pupula* (18%), *Nitzschia sigma* (19%) and *Cyclotella meneghiniana* (19%).

At site 3: *Cymbella obtusiuscula* (11%), *Pinnularia appendiculata* (11%), *Cymbella affinis* (11%), *Mastogloia smithii* (12%), *Navicula imbricate* (14%), *Navicula grimmei* (14%), *Bacillaria paxillefer* (19%) and *Navicula rsdiosa* (22%). At site 3: *Cymbella obtusiuscula* (11%), *Pinnularia*

*appendiculata* (11%), *Cymbella affinis* (11%), *Mastogloia smithii* (12%), *Navicula imbricate* (14%), *Navicula grimeii* (14%), *Bacillaria paxillefer* (19%) and *Navicula rsdiosa* (22%).

The total number of epipelion algae was  $171.39 \text{ cells} \times 10^3 / \text{cm}^2$  in summer at site 2 and  $41.9 \times 10^3 \text{ cells} / \text{cm}^2$  in autumn at site 1 (Table 2). The concentration of chlorophyll-a ranged from  $0.2 \text{ mg} / \text{dm}^2$  in winter to  $8.4 \text{ mg} / \text{dm}^2$  in spring at site 1 for both concentrations. While the lowest phaeophytin-a concentration was  $0.3 \text{ mg} / \text{l}$  in site 3 in spring and the highest concentration was  $3.7 \text{ mg} / \text{dm}^2$  recorded at site 1 in summer. Both chlorophyll-a and phaeophytin-a significant variation ( $P < 0.05$ ) among concentrations at season were noticed.

In the same trend the LSD results of biological parameters showed a significant difference between seasons (Table 2). These results might be related to the nature of each site as illustrated in table 1. The dominance of diatoms was very known in the Iraqi ecosystem that may be due to their ability to tolerate a wide average of biological and environmental factors (Hassan et al 2014). This dominance is also noticed in many studies of aquatic ecosystems in Iraq (Ismail and Saadalla 2010, Kadhim et al 2013, Hassan and Shaawiat 2015, Ali et al 2017). Temporal and spatial variation may be indicated to the engagement with many environmental factors: temperature, EC, nutrients, light penetration and level of DO (Pringle and Triska 2006) (Table

4). The total number of algae was significantly correlated with some parameters a significantly (Table 5) such as TDS ( $r=0.895$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ),  $S_{\%}$  ( $r=0.514$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ), TN ( $r=0.85$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ), RS ( $r=0.5$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ), EC sediment ( $r=0.574$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ) and WF ( $r=0.692$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ). The growth of Epipelion algae depends on these parameters and the nutrients as a requirement of a given algal flora and environment quality where they are present. The correlation with nutrient shows why diatoms predominant over other algal flora. No significant correlation was recorded between Chlorophyll a and all physicochemical parameters while Phaeophyten a has a significant correlated with BOD, TP, TN and total number of algae ( $r=0.54$ ,  $r=0.739$ ,  $r=0.921$ ,  $r=0.88$ ,  $P < 0.05$ , respectively).

Matta et al (2018) reported that some algae such as *Cymbella*, *Amphora* and *Achnanthes* might be referring to organic pollution in the river. Andrejic et al (2012) revealed that the obvious existence of the genera *Navicula* and *Nitzschia* in an aquatic system referred to organic pollution. Cyanophyceae is the second most important of appealing community in the Diyala river in this investigation and followed by Chlorophyceae. The predominance of Cyanophyceae on Chlorophyceae indicates an environmental alters. Some authors reported that the Cyanophyceae community has responded to the changes in the environment (Döüterelö et al 2004, Söltani et al 2012).

**Table 5.** Correlation coefficient between different parameter in Diyala river

Parameters	WT	AT	pHW	TDS	ECW (S%)	L.P.	DO	BOD	TP	TN	RS	pHS	ECS	TC	TNA	Cha	Pha	WF	
Water temperature °C (AW)	1																		
Air temperature °C (AT)	0.9	1																	
pH water (pHW)	0.1	-0.1	1																
Total dissolved solid (TDS)	0.2	0.5	-0.4	1															
Electric conductivity (ECW)	0.7	-0.3	-0.3	0.7	1														
Salinity (S%)	0.6	-0.8	-0.4	0.7	0.99	1													
Light penetration (LP)	-0.9	-0.8	-0	-0	-0.7	-0.6	1												
Dissolved oxygen (DO)	-0.8	-0.9	0.009	-1	-0.8	-0.8	0.68	1											
Biological oxygen demand (BOD)	0.3	0.4	0.23	0.3	0.01	0.05	-0	-0.2	1										
Total phosphorus (T)	-0.8	-0.9	-0.3	0.5	-0.7	-0.7	-0.4	0.7	0.3	1									
Total nitrogen (TN)	0.5	0.7	0.19	0.7	0.5	0.48	-0.4	-0.4	0.6	0.6	1								
Reactive silicate (RS)	0.1	0.4	-0.7	0.7	0.41	0.43	-0.1	-0.3	-0	0.4	0.34	1							
pH sediment (pHS)	0.3	0.2	0.39	-0	0.08	0.01	-0.5	0.15	0.2	0.1	0.56	-0	1						
EC sediment (EC.S)	-0.1	0.1	-0.1	0.6	0.44	0.45	0.08	-0.2	-0.4	0.2	0.23	0.2	-0.2	1					
Total organic carbon (TOC)	-0.4	-0.3	0.41	0.1	-0.3	-0.3	0.35	0.42	-0.1	-0.5	0.24	0.1	0.3	0.28	1				
Total number of algae (TNA)	0.2	0.5	-0.1	0.9	0.49	0.51	-0.1	-0.4	0.3	0.5	0.86	0.6	0.2	0.57	0.4	1			
Chlorophylla (Cha)	-0.2	-0.1	-0.9	0.2	0.07	0.1	0.11	0.09	-0.4	0.1	0.26	-0	-0.3	-0	-0.1	0.006	1		
Phaeophytin a (Ph.a)	0.5	0.7	0.01	0.7	0.49	0.48	-0.3	-0.4	0.5	0.7	0.92	0.8	0.4	0.31	0	0.88	-0.1	1	
Water flow (W.F)	0.5	0.6	0.48	0.5	0.36	0.35	-0.2	-0.6	0.4	0.4	0.67	-0	0	0.42	0.1	0.642	-0.6	-0.7	1

\*Significant ( $P < 0.05$ )

The predominance of *Oscillatoria* on the rest of Cyanophyceae genera in this investigation indicates water pollution (Döüterelö et al 2004). The existence of some Chlöröphyceae genera such as Chlörella and Senedesmüs indicated to water pollution, these algae has the ability to tolerate the polluted water (Pöülicköva et al 2008, Bellinger and Sigeo 2010). Hassan et al (2017a) revealed that the water quality of Diyala river was poor – marginal for the protection of life of aquatic organisms, therefore this study confirms the same results by using Epipelion community.

### CONCLUSION

The water quality of Diyala river is suffering from a supply shortage of water and anthropogenic sources of pollution. The river is alkaline and oligohaline. Diatoms are dominant group and followed by Cyanophyceae and Chlöröphyceae. The pennate diatoms predominant on the centric diatoms. The growth of algae in the Diyala river depends on TDS, TN, WF, EC sediment, and RS. A noticeable higher total number of algae recorded in summer due to availability of TN and RS. This study confirmed that the water quality of the river has been changed in terms of species composition of Epipelion. The predominance of Cyanophyceae on Chlöröphyceae indicates an environmental alters. The existence of genera *Cymbella*, *Amphora*, *Achnanthes*, *Navicula* and *Nitzschia* referred to organic pollution in the river.

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## Diversity of Soil Algae from Vegetable Crop Fields of Cachar District, Assam, India

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**Abstract:** The present work deals with the study of distributional pattern and soil algal diversity of vegetable crop fields of Cachar district, Assam (India). A total of 50 algal species belonging to 27 genera spread over Chlorophyceae, Cyanophyceae and Bacillariophyceae families were enumerated. Of these, 19 species belong to Cyanophyceae, 5 to Chlorophyceae and 26 species to Bacillariophyceae. Soil physico-chemical analysis reveals the soil of the study sites is slightly acidic in nature with different textural type. Higher number of species was found at Bagpür. *Nostoc*, *Anabaena*, *Oscillatoria*, *Chroococcus*, *Haematococcus*, *Chlorella*, *Scenedesmus*, *Navicula*, *Cymbella* and *Nitzschia* were the most dominant species. The highest Shannon diversity index ( $H' = 2.69$ ) was in Bagpür with Simpson's dominance index 0.09 and Pielou's evenness index 0.87 in May 2013. The pH and conductivity of soil were significantly correlated with the diversity indices.

**Keywords:** Vegetable crop fields, Soil algae, Diversity, Assam, India

Soil habitats are the most favourable non-aquatic ecosystems for soil algae. Diversity of soil algae are quite different depending on types of soil such as virgin or arable soil. Presence of algae in soil contributes to formation of soil, reduce soil erosion and help in matter and energy fluxes). *Heterocystous cyanobacteria* are known to effectively contribute to biological nitrogen fixation. They also help in reclamation of saline soil and serve as ameliorators of metals. Soil algae including cyanobacteria in various crop fields of different locations had been documented (Jadhav and Balasaheb 2015, Adesalu and Olugbemi 2015, Seema 2016). They play an important role in sustaining soil physico-chemical properties in cropping system (Cherian and Tarar 2012). As a sequel to continued endeavor to assess the soil algal diversity of the Barak valley as a whole (Paul and Rout 2016, Devi and Rout 2016, 2018). The present investigation addresses the distributional pattern and diversity of algae from two different vegetable crop fields of Cachar district, Assam (India).

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

**Study area:** The study was conducted in two vegetable crop fields of Bagpür (24°45'34.5"N 92°50'23.7"E) and Gõbindapür (24°48'19.5"N 92°52'33.5"E) situated on the banks of river Barak in Cachar District, Assam (Fig. 1). The sites are located in the South East region of the district. Vegetable cropping period starts from the late winter and continues upto pre-monsoon (December to May). The primary vegetables grown in Bagpür site were cabbage, brinjal, cauliflower,

turnip, green chillies, carrot, cabbage, beans, tomato, cauliflower, turnip are the primary crops grown in Gõbindapür area.

**Soil sampling and analysis:** A total of 20 soils samples from two vegetable crop fields were collected randomly from a depth of 0-10cm using soil corer (5 cm inner diameter) once during the cropping period. Composite samples were prepared in the laboratory. The samples were air dried, grinded and sieved through 2mm mesh. The physico-chemical parameters of soil samples were determined using standard methods. The soil pH was measured by Chemline digital pH meter and soil conductivity was measured using a Systronics direct reading conductivity meter. The bulk density of the soil samples was estimated by soil corer method (Brady 2004). The soil moisture content was determined by oven drying method (Güpta 1999). The soil organic carbon was analyzed by Walkley and Black's rapid titration method (Jackson 1958). The texture of the soil was determined by Bouyocös soil hydrometer (Allen 1989). The soil water holding capacity was determined by Keen's box method (Piper 1944). Total nitrogen was estimated by semi-micro Kjeldahl method (Allen 1974) and phosphorus was determined spectrophotometrically and potassium by flame photometry (Jackson 1973).

**Algal collection, identification and enumeration:** The algal samples were collected randomly from soil surface during the crop season i.e. from December 2012 to May 2013 from different plots of the study sites in replicates. Algal samples were studied by optical microscopy using Leica

applicatiön süit (LM1000 LED). Algal samples were scraped 1cm<sup>2</sup> fröm süurface söil with scalpel and förceps. Algal identificatiön was carried öüt with relevant taxönömich mönögraph (Prescott 1951, Desikachary 1959, Saröde and Kamat 1984). Enümeratiöns öf algae were made by "Lackey's dröp methöd" (Trivedy and Göel 1986).

**Statistical analysis:** Algal diversity was analysed üsing different indices. The Shannön-Wiener diversity index, Simpsons's döminance index and Pielöü's evenness index were calculäted with the help öf excel. Pearsön cörrölatiöns were made with SPSS versiön 21.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The pH öf the söil was slightly acidic (5.56-6.01) with little variatiöns amöng different sites. The cöndüctivity was 0.45mS/cm in Bagpür and 0.27mS/cm in Göbindapür. The söil at Göbindapür has silty clay löam and Bagpür has silty clay textüre. The söil bülk density was almöst invariant (1.25gm cm<sup>-3</sup>). The söil möistüre cöntent ranged fröm 17.4 percent in Göbindapür tö 20.57 percent in Bagpür while örganic carbön was almöst invariant. Tötäl nitrögen cöntent öf the sites ranged fröm 0.27 tö 0.30 per cent. Göbindapür site cöntained higher nitrögen cöntent. Phöshörüs (0.03%) and pötassiüm cöncentratiön (0.70%) was same in böth sites.

A tötäl öf 50 algal species ünder 27 genera belönging tö Chlööröphyceae, Cyanöphyceae and Bacillariöphyceae fröm twö different vegetable cröp fields öf Cachar District, Assam had been enümerated. Of these, 19 species belöng tö Cyanöphyceae, 5 tö Chlööröphyceae and 26 tö Bacillariöphyceae (Table 2). Class wise percentage öf Bacillariöphyceae was maximüm (52%) highest föllöwed by Cyanöphyceae (38%) and Chlööröphyceae (10%). Higher nümber öf species was encöüntered at Bagpür with 46 species, 23 species belöng tö Bacillariöphyceae, 18 species tö Cyanöphyceae and 5 species tö Chlööröphyceae. In Göbindapür, 21 species were recörded öf which 10 species belöng tö Bacillariöphyceae, 9 species tö Cyanöphyceae and 2 species tö Chlööröphyceae (Table 3 and 4), The saplings are üsüally söwn in December and extensive watering begins fröm Febrüary öny causiing algal species tö flöürish thröüghöüt the söil üniförmly. *Nostoc*, *Anabaena*, *Chroococcus*, *Haematococcus*, *Oscillatoria*, *Scenedesmus*, *Chlorella*, *Cymbella*, *Navicula* and *Nitzschia* was the möstdöminant species (Plate 1). The algal förms öf ünicultural, cölönial and filamentöüs were recörded. Filamentöüs algae were recörded abüandantly pöst-rainy seasön. Tötäl algal density göt significantly increased fröm December tö May in böth the sites. Highest Shannön diversity index (2.69) was öbserved in Bagpür with Simpsons's

**Table 1.** Söil physicö-chemical parameters öf the stüdy sites

Parameters	Bagpür	Göbindapür
pH	5.56±0.48	6.01±0.31
Cöndüctivity(mS/cm)	0.45±0.03	0.27±0.02
Möistüre cöntent (%)	20.57±1.37	17.4±0.92
Bülk density(gm/cm <sup>3</sup> )	1.24±0.05	1.28±0.10
Organic carbön (%)	1.14±0.39	1±0.15
Tötäl nitrögen (%)	0.27±0.02	0.3±0.004
Tötäl phöshörüs (%)	0.03±0.002	0.03±0.001
Tötäl pötassiüm (%)	0.7±0.01	0.68±0.02
Söil textüre	Silty clay	Silty clay löam

döminance index öf 0.09 and Peilöü's evenness index öf 0.87 in May 2013 (Table 5 and Fig. 2). Only twö parameters, pH and cöndüctivity were föünd tö be significantly cörrölated. Shannön diversity index shöwed a negative cörrölatiön with pH and a pösitive cörrölatiön was öbserved between Simpsons index and cöndüctivity.

The twö sites have rather similar söil characteristics and climatic cönditiön. För determinatiön öf söil algal cömpösiitiön, pH plays an impörtant röle. För söil algae distribütiön and diversity, water cöntent is very crücial (Lin and Wü 2013). Cöndüctivity was quite higher in Bagpür relative tö Göbindapür which may be due tö üsage öf excess P and K based fertilizers. Söils with cöndüctivity belöw 0.4 mS/cm are cönsidered as nön-saline and that aböve 0.8 (mS/cm) as severely saline (Wagh et al 2013). The cöndüctivity valües öf söil öf the present stüdy area reflect a nön-saline cönditiön. The söil bülk density was göverned by söil types, textüres, management and cültivatiön measüres (Gathala 2011, Benbi 2012). Göbindapür site has löw möistüre cöntent as cömpared tö Bagpür. Möistüre cöntent plays an impörtant röle in plant health. In löw water level, plant becömes stressed. Bagpür has möre örganic cöntents than that öf Göbindapür. In cültivated söil, söürce öf örganic carbön inclüde cröp residüe, cöver cröps, animal manüre, green manüre and örganic fertilizer (Börkar 2015). In acidic söil, green algae are föünd abüandantly and in diverse förm (Lükesöva and Höffmann 1996).

In the present wörk, Bacillariöphyceae algal förms cönsütüte a majör part öf söil algal pöpülätiön föllöwed by Cyanöphyceae and Chlööröphyceae. Intersestingly Cyanöphyceae were repörted tö cönsütüte the döminant algal pöpülätiön föllöwed by Bacillariöphyceae and Chlööröphyceae fröm a brinjal fields öf Bagpür in Cachar District, Assam (Devi and Röüt 2016). Stüdiés ön söil algae have been döcümented fröm different cröp fields süch as paddy (Patil and Chaügüle 2004, Cherian and Tarar 2012), wheat (Chapörkar and Prasad 2004), brinjal (Balasahed and Jadhav 2014), pötatö (Adesalü and Olügbemi 2015)

,fenügreek (Jadhav and Balasaheb 2015) and cabbage (Devi and Röüt 2018). Cyanöbacteria were recörded as the möst döminant species in söils in different cröp fields. The möst döminant cyanöbacteria öbserved in farmlands elsewhere are *Anabaena*, *Nostoc*, *Calothrix*, *Lyngbya*, *Microcolues*,

*Oscillatoria* and *Phormidium* (Khaybüllina et al 2010). In the present stüdy, higher diversity was öbserved in Bagpür relative tö Göbindapür site. Böth the vegetable cröp field being üsed för cömmercial pürpöse, higher amöünt öf pesticides and chemical fertilizer were üsed för better yield

**Table 2.** Occürrance öf algae in different vegetable cröp fields

Species	Bagpür	Göbindapür
Cyanöphyceae		
<i>Anabaena orientalis</i> Dixit	+	+
<i>Anabaena oryzae</i> Fritsch	+	-
<i>Anabaena variabilis</i> Kützing ex Börn.et Flah	+	-
<i>Anabaena variabilis</i> v. <i>ellipospora</i> Fritsch	+	+
<i>Anabaena variabilis</i> v. <i>kashiensis</i>	+	+
<i>Aphanothece microscopic</i> Nag.	+	+
<i>Calothrix marchicav.intermedia</i> Raö, C.B.	+	-
<i>Chroococcus disperses</i> var. <i>minor</i> G.M. Smith	+	-
<i>Chroococcus turgidus</i> (Küetz.) Naegeli	-	+
<i>Myxosarcina spectabilis</i> Geitler (Orig.)	+	-
<i>Nostoc carneum</i> Ag.	+	+
<i>Nostoc hatei</i> Dixit	+	-
<i>Nostoc linkia</i> (Röth) Börn.et Flah.	+	-
<i>Nostoc piscinale</i> kütz.	-	+
<i>Nostoc</i> sp.2	+	-
<i>Nostoc spongiaeformev. tenue</i> Raö, C.B.	+	-
<i>Oscillatoria amphigranulata</i> van Göör.	+	+
<i>Phormidium retzii</i> (Ag.) Gömönt	+	-
<i>Spirulina major</i> Kützing	+	-
Chlörophyceae		
<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	+	-
<i>Haematococcus lacustris</i> (Giröd). Röstaf.	+	+
<i>Hormidium flaccidum</i> (A.Br.) Börn et Flah.	+	-
<i>Kirchneriella obese</i> (W.West) Schmidle	+	-
<i>Scenedesmus opoliensis</i> var. <i>Setosus</i> Dedüsenkö	+	+
Bacillariöphyceae		
<i>Amphora maharashtrensis</i> sp.növ.	+	-
<i>Caloneis bacillum</i> (Grün.) Meresch. V. Föntinalis (Grün.) Mayer	+	-
<i>Cymbella tumidula</i> Grün.	+	+
<i>Frustulia jogensis</i> Gandhi.	+	-
<i>Gomphonema gracile</i> Ehr.v. <i>intricatiforme</i> Mayer	+	-
<i>Gomphonema parvulum</i> (Küetz.) Grün.	+	+
<i>Navicula bacillum</i> Ehr.	+	+
<i>Navicula confervacea</i> küetz.	+	-
<i>Navicula cryptocyphela</i> küetz.	+	+
<i>Navicula halophila</i> (Grün.) Cleve f.sübcapitata östrüp	+	-
<i>Navicula lucidula</i> Grün.	+	-
<i>Navicula pupulaküetz.v.röstrata</i> Hüstedt	+	-
<i>Navicula rostellata</i> Küetz.	+	-
<i>Navicula</i> sp.	+	-
<i>Navicula subhamulata</i> Grün.	+	-
<i>Navicula subrhynchocephala</i> Hüstedt	+	-
<i>Navicula subtenelloides</i> chölnöky	+	-
<i>Nedium longiceps</i> (Greg) A.Cl.v.ündülatüm (Mayer) A.Cl.	+	+
<i>Nitzschia palea</i> (küetz.) w.smith.	+	+
<i>Nitzschia</i> sp.	+	+
<i>Pinnularia dolosa</i> Gandhi v. <i>chariessa</i> Gandhi	+	-
<i>Pinnularia interruptaw. smith</i>	-	+
<i>Stauroneis phoenicenteron</i> Ehr.f.prödücta Gandhi	+	+
<i>Surirella tenuissima</i> Hüstedt.	+	-
<i>Synedraacus</i> Küetz.v. <i>radians</i> (Küetz.) Hüstedt	-	+
<i>Synedra</i> sp.	+	+
Tötal	46	21

Table 3. Variation of density, abundance and frequency of algal species at Bagpür

Group (Species)	Density (individual × 10 <sup>-5</sup> )							Abundance (individual × 10 <sup>5</sup> cm <sup>-3</sup> )							Frequency (%)						
	D	J	F	M	A	M	D	D	J	F	M	A	M	D	D	J	F	M	A	M	
Cyanophyceae																					
<i>Anabaena orientalis</i>	4.45	-	-	3.5	11.72	7.59	6.35	-	-	-	5.83	14.65	10.84	70	-	-	60	80	70		
<i>Anabaena oryzae</i>	-	-	-	7.49	9.12	8.29	-	-	-	-	9.36	11.40	10.36	-	-	-	80	80	80		
<i>Anabaena variabilis</i>	-	-	9.67	3.26	1.38	-	-	-	-	13.81	8.14	1.98	-	-	-	70	40	70	-		
<i>Anabaena variabilis</i> sv.	-	-	-	-	1.06	6.89	-	-	-	-	-	2.12	6.89	-	-	-	-	50	100		
<i>ellipospora</i>	-	-	8.11	6.43	6.19	3.84	-	-	11.58	10.72	5.48	6.19	5.48	-	70	60	100	70			
<i>Anabaena variabilis</i> sv. <i>kashiensis</i>	18.72	16.22	14.46	5.62	-	-	18.72	16.22	14.46	11.23	-	-	-	100	100	100	50	-	-		
<i>Aphanothece microscopica</i>	-	2.79	1.86	2.52	2.12	3.05	-	4.65	3.71	3.15	5.09	4.23	5.09	-	60	50	80	50	60		
<i>Calothrix</i>	3.58	3.23	-	-	-	-	5.12	4.03	-	-	-	-	-	70	80	-	-	-	-		
<i>Chroococcus disperses</i> <i>marichicav.intermedia</i> <i>var.minor</i>	3.09	8.55	15.24	12.05	-	-	5.16	10.68	15.24	15.06	-	-	-	60	80	100	80	-	-		
<i>Myxosarcina spectabilis</i>	-	0.69	-	-	-	18.66	-	3.45	-	-	18.66	-	-	-	20	-	-	-	100		
<i>Nostoc carneum</i>	-	-	2.54	4.40	7.0	3.84	-	-	4.23	4.39	7.78	7.78	9.59	-	60	100	90	40	60		
<i>Nostoc hatei</i>	-	-	-	7.81	-	3.58	-	-	-	7.81	5.96	5.96	5.96	-	-	-	100	-	60		
<i>Nostoc linkia</i>	-	-	-	-	6.84	-	-	-	-	-	9.77	9.77	-	-	-	-	-	70	-		
<i>Nostoc</i> sp.2	-	-	-	7.81	4.40	-	-	-	-	7.81	4.88	4.88	-	-	-	100	90	-	-		
<i>Nostoc sSpongiaeforme</i>	1.06	1.92	1.56	-	2.04	-	3.53	3.84	3.13	3.91	4.07	4.07	-	30	50	50	-	50	-		
<i>Oscillatoria amphigranulata</i>	0.65	-	0.68	1.95	-	1.40	1.63	-	3.42	3.91	3.49	3.49	3.49	40	-	20	50	-	40		
<i>Phormidium reitzii</i>	-	-	1.07	-	-	1.31	-	-	3.58	-	3.27	-	3.27	-	-	30	-	-	40		
<i>Spirulina major</i>	6	6	9	11	10	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	40		
Total no. of species = 17																					
Chlorophyceae																					
<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	5.13	6.72	6.35	4.40	-	-	8.55	6.71	7.05	6.28	-	-	-	60	100	90	70	-	-		
<i>Haematococcus lacustris</i>	-	7.41	10.55	4.23	-	-	-	10.59	13.19	7.05	-	-	-	-	70	80	60	-	-		
<i>Hormidium flaccidum</i>	-	-	-	-	-	0.44	-	-	-	-	1.45	-	1.45	-	-	-	-	-	30		
<i>Kirchneriella obesa</i>	-	-	-	8.14	8.14	0.85	-	-	-	13.57	11.63	11.63	12.21	-	-	-	60	70	70		
<i>Scenedesmus</i> <i>opoliensis</i> var. <i>setosus</i>	-	2.09	1.66	-	1.47	-	-	2.99	3.32	-	2.44	2.44	-	-	70	50	-	60	-		
Total no. of species = 5	1	3	3	3	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
Bacillariophyceae																					
<i>Amphora maharashtraensis</i> .	0.73	-	-	-	1.55	-	1.83	-	-	-	-	3.87	-	40	-	-	-	40	-		
<i>Caloneis bacillum</i>	1.55	3.14	-	1.63	-	-	5.16	5.23	-	2.03	-	-	-	30	60	-	80	-	-		
<i>Cymbella tumidula</i>	1.47	-	-	-	-	-	2.93	-	-	-	-	-	-	50	-	-	-	-	-		
<i>Frustulia jogensis</i>	1.06	-	0.88	-	1.30	-	2.65	-	1.76	-	2.17	2.17	-	40	-	50	-	60	-		
<i>Gomphonema gracile</i>	-	0.96	2.83	-	-	1.92	-	3.20	4.72	-	-	-	3.20	-	30	60	-	60	-		
<i>Gomphonema parvulum</i>	-	-	-	-	-	3.56	-	-	-	-	-	-	5.11	-	-	-	-	-	70		
<i>Navicula bacillum</i>	1.71	4.97	2.05	3.34	2.93	6.11	2.14	4.97	2.93	4.77	5.86	5.86	7.63	80	100	70	70	50	80		
<i>Navicula confervacea</i>	-	1.57	1.86	-	0.57	-	-	3.14	3.71	-	1.42	1.42	-	-	50	50	-	40	-		
<i>Navicula cryptocyphepha</i>	-	1.40	1.86	3.42	1.63	-	-	3.49	3.09	4.27	2.32	2.32	-	-	40	60	80	70	-		
<i>Navicula halophila</i>	-	0.61	4.40	-	-	0.70	-	1.22	4.88	-	1.40	1.40	-	-	50	90	-	50	-		
<i>Navicula lucidula</i>	2.12	-	-	-	-	-	2.65	-	-	-	-	-	-	80	-	-	-	-	-		

Cont...

<i>Navicula pupulakuetz.v.rostrata</i>	0.73	0.61	-	-	1.04	1.83	2.03	-	-	-	3.49	40	30	-	-	-	30
<i>Navicula rostellata</i>	3.17	-	1.66	-	-	5.29	-	2.37	-	-	-	60	-	70	-	-	-
<i>Navicula sp.</i>	-	1.03	-	-	-	-	4.02	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	-	-	-
<i>Navicula subhamulata</i>	-	2.79	-	-	-	-	3.99	-	-	-	-	-	70	-	-	-	-
<i>Navicula sSubrhynchocephala</i>	2.52	1.31	1.76	-	-	4.21	1.87	2.51	-	-	-	60	70	70	-	-	-
<i>Navicula subtenelloides</i>	-	0.61	-	-	1.48	-	2.04	-	-	-	-	-	30	-	-	-	40
<i>Nedium longiceps</i>	-	3.05	5.76	-	3.58	-	6.11	6.40	-	-	-	-	50	90	-	-	60
<i>Nitzschia palea</i>	4.64	5.32	3.91	5.70	3.75	7.73	5.91	5.58	7.12	6.33	-	60	90	70	80	90	100
<i>Nitzschia sp.</i>	-	0.70	-	-	-	-	3.49	-	-	-	-	-	20	-	-	-	-
<i>Pinnularia dolosa Gandhi v.charissa</i>	-	0.52	-	-	0.17	-	1.74	-	-	-	-	-	30	-	-	-	10
<i>Stauoneis phoenicenteron</i>	-	-	0.49	-	-	-	-	2.44	-	3.39	-	-	-	20	-	60	-
<i>Surtrella tenuissima</i>	-	-	0.88	-	-	-	-	2.93	2.04	-	-	-	-	30	20	-	-
<i>Synedra sp.</i>	0.73	-	-	-	1.13	3.66	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	40
Tötotal nö. öf species = 24	11	15	12	4	8	10	-	-	-	-	2.83	20	-	-	-	-	-

and productivity. Prolonged use of fertilizers is believed to have led to reduction of species diversity as well as suppressed development of cyanobacteria (Küzyakhmetov 1998a). Correlation among soil physico-chemical parameters and diversity indices of the two sites shows both positive and negative significant correlation. Deb et al (2013) reported the correlation between algal diversity indices and soil physico-chemical parameters of Assam University campus and only two parameters pH and bulk density of soil were found to be significant. In the present study pH and conductivity are significantly correlated.

### CONCLUSION

In both the sites Bagpur and Gobindapur, Bacillariophyceae representation was highest followed by Cyanophyceae and Chlorophyceae. Algal forms unicellular, colonial and filamentous were recorded during the present research. Algal diversity was higher during the rainy season as increased moisture content of soil promotes luxuriant growth of algae. The pH and conductivity of soil were significantly correlated with the algal diversity indices.

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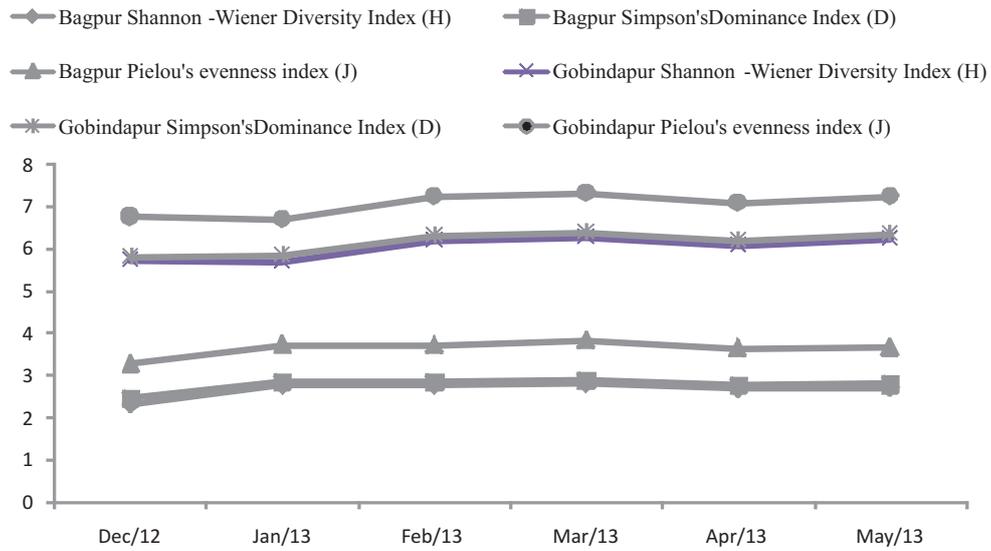


Fig. 2. Monthly diversity indices of algae in the study sites

Table 5. Correlation among soil physico-chemical parameters and different indices of the algae

Indices	pH	Conductivity	Moisture content	Bulk density	Organic carbon	Total nitrogen	Total phosphorus	Total potassium
Shannon-Wiener Diversity index (H)	-0.605*	0.367	0.494	-0.79	0.444	-0.171	0.015	0.136
Simpson's Dominance index (C)	0.535	-0.446	-0.409	0.192	-0.480	0.001	0.019	-0.128
Pielou's evenness index (E)	-0.122	0.587*	-0.107	-0.129	0.445	0.309	0.214	0.188

\*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

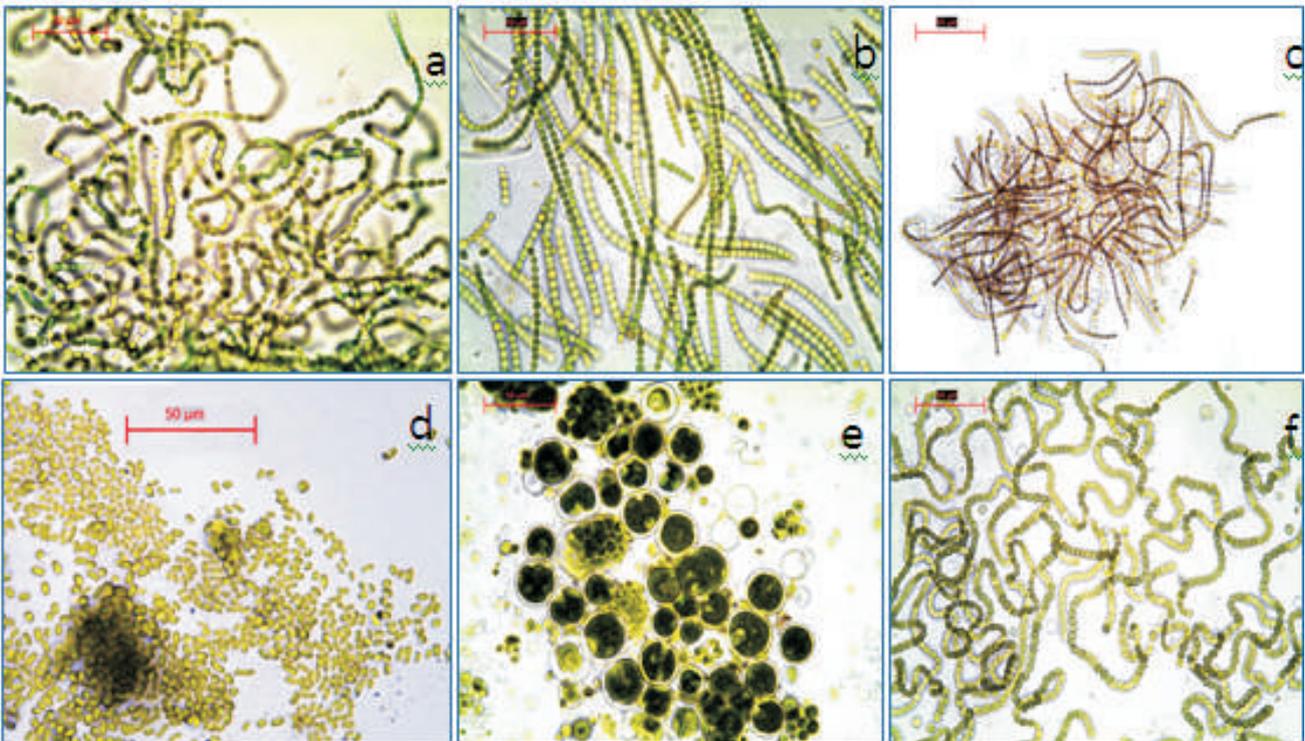


Plate 1. *Anabaena variabilis*, *ellipsospora*, *b. Anabaena oryzae*, *c. Nostoc carneum*, *d. Aphanothece microscopic*, *e., Haematococcus lacustris* and *f. Nostoc linkia*

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# Identify Suitable Classification Algorithm for Water Pixel Count Extraction – A Case Study of Puzhal Lake

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**Abstract:** The scope of urbanization variation due to landscape alterations, profoundly affect the ecological features and decision-making process for built-up standards. In various parts of the globe, urbanization studies have identified a significant correlation between substantial human benefits on quality-of life, quantifiable resource utilization and local climatic parameters. Remote sensing environment has developed techniques to estimate change in spatio-temporal attributes in a georeferenced imagery. The intricate multi-signature classes and massive data interpretation for minute urban change detection for Kancheepuram, Tamilnadu. Supervised Land-use-and-Land-Cover (LULC) classification using Neural Network(NN), Minimum Distance, Support Vector Machine(SVM) & Maximum Likelihood technique to estimate change in urban class is performed. Unsupervised classification, inbuilt programmed distance learning algorithm, with ISO and K-means, is performed on preprocessed and enhanced PCA image. Support vector machine and ISO classification techniques with enhanced imagery, on the prior basis shows more accuracy (80-85%) amongst mentioned techniques. Thus, following SVM to categorize attributes to classes and performing urban change detection. The discrepancy between new land and barren land via SVM practice remain uncertain.

**Keywords:** Remote sensing, Band math, Supervised and unsupervised techniques, Normalized indexing

Urban growth (movement of rural area to residential and commercial land use at the fringe of cosmopolitan areas) acts as the major factor influencing quality and quantity of the water bodies in and around the . During last two decades, the intensity of land use changes with respect to urbanization increase, illustrates its consequences on ecology of the receiving stream. With the increase in urban growth, the increased areal demand, makes significant changes in the allocation of water bodies and disturbs the natural ecology. Several inter-disciplinary projects to bring the natural regime to pre-urbanized level and protect the water bodies extent are initiated around the globe. The increasing urban change and varying environmental factors plays a major role to increase percentage imperviousness and decrease infiltration rate, thereby deteriorating stream quality and disturbing stream natural regime. To estimate the water depletion in a catchment, various remote sensing techniques are developed to categorize urban expansion with depleting water table. The studies on change monitoring for mapping of social and economic processes are presented and with regards to land use change relation for these factors are assessed by (Schneider 2012). The outcome of the relationship shows the direct relation and its usefulness in decision making process to preserve and prevent natural resources. The sustainable development policies are outlined in accordance to the integration of study for various

attribute classification for wide range sources and disciplines using remote sensed data (Xiüwan 2010).

The classified image authentication for its accuracy becomes difficult and time consuming with labor-intensive survey method. With the vast application in remote sensing environment, the urban literature and planning techniques using classification change analysis became prominent recently with introduction of various time saving validation techniques. The several techniques based on algorithmic classification of satellite images for land acquisition and change detection varies with spatial resolution. Change detection using high resolution data for multi-date composite is difficult because of data unavailability and complexity in data handling. Burns (2012) analyzed landsat imagery using multi-variate technique for supervised classification and inferred that the decision tree technique is most accurate (90%) method. Several research objectives on classification algorithm and change detection clearly resolve class confusion matrix for various domains with their spectral information (spatially and temporally). Remote sensing in recent trends helps analyst to depict several decisions in Urban planning and management.

The methods used for classification studies under varying circumstances are diverse and location specific with uncertainty in choosing 'best practice' for optimum accuracy. Several studies on spatially classifying the satellite image and

validate it with real time scenario, have been performed and proved accurate up to 85%. The temporal studies (dense time series data handling) in urban domain are not extensively implemented to estimate the change in land parcel due to deficiency in data availability and efficient data processing with high computational power (Yuan 2005). To reduce high computational space and improve accuracy, generalized method to classify satellite data in more accurate detailed is to be estimated and in doing so, the MapReduce concept can be implemented to reduce time consumed for processing.

**MATERIAL AND METHODS**

An area of 140 km<sup>2</sup> around Puzhal lake is selected for the change detection analysis for water encroachment and its adverse effect on the ecology. The lake acts as a storage reservoir to supply water to Chennai city with a contribution from Chembarambakkam and Porur Lake. Puzhal reservoir of an ancient design capacity of 500 million cubic feet in 1876 is now upgraded to 2,227 million cubic feet due to increasing demand and variable climatic conditions. Chennai water

supply corporation defined the design capacity of reservoir to 3300 mcft, according to receiving inflow of 1,196 cubic feet per second. During Chennai floods, Puzhal lake sustained 320mm of rainfall filling 67.5% of its capacity with a lowest flooding amongst adjacent reservoir.

The study area with coordinates (13° 10'00"N 80° 10'17.5"E) is located in the outskirts of Metropolitan city Chennai, with a growing urbanization rate of 34.15 –48.45% from 1991 to 2011 on decennially. Step-by-step procedure for the satellite data acquisition, preprocessing for spectral and radiometric correction, and stacking of time series satellite data to access the seasonal variation of data availability. Multi-spectral data, visible infrared radiations of comparable value, are used to categorize the land composition and high backscatter for human settlements are based on quantitative assessment using data fusion technique. Advanced data fusion technique or multi-variate data handling approach is not widely spread due to data complexity and time-consuming task in correcting, correlating and separating ranges for various domains.

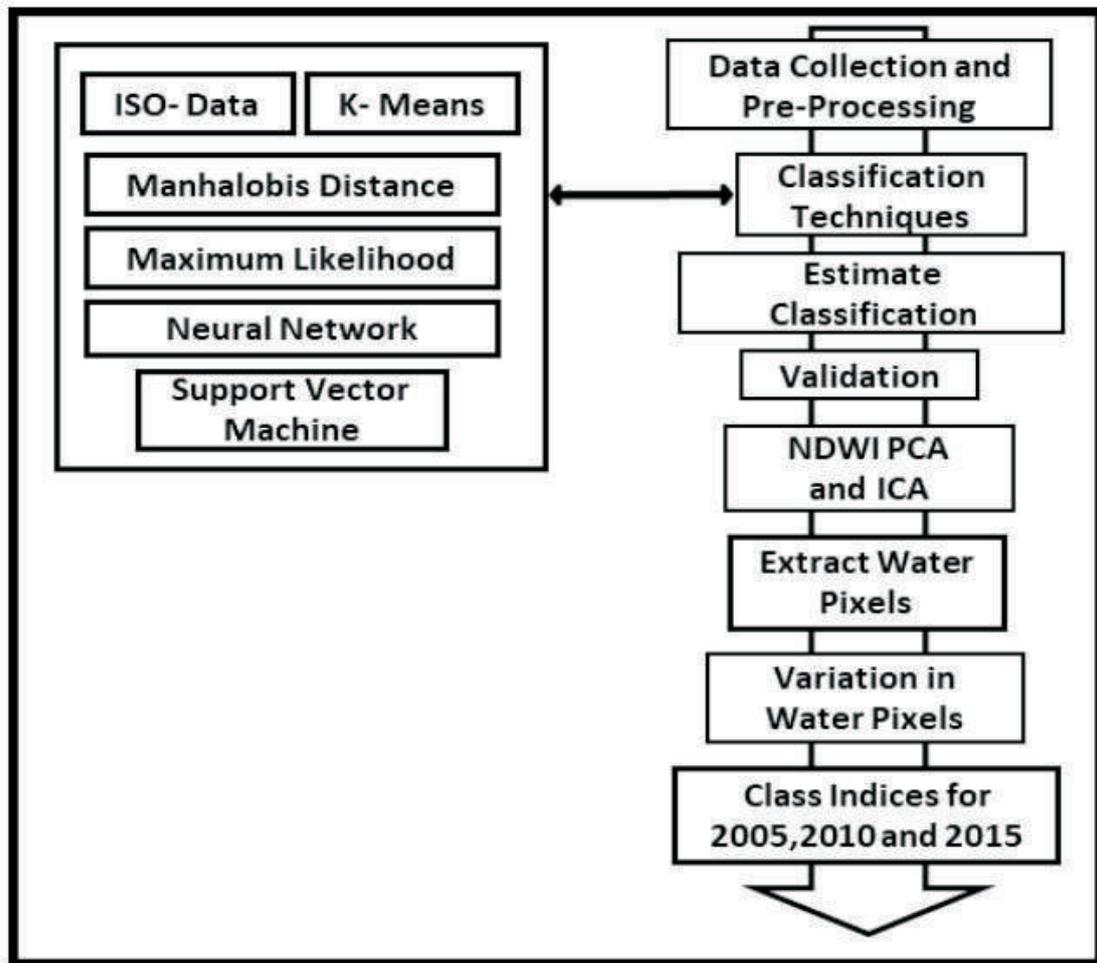


Fig. 1. Methodology flow chart

**Table 1.** Classified list of classes used for several quantifications

Land cover	Class details
Water	Major water borne areas with high intensity of water reflectance value
Urban	Residential, Commercial, Industrial, Transportation and so on
Highly vegetated	High density vegetation Index cross verified from NDVI index
Low Vegetation	Low density with range of 0-0.3-pixel values
Barren land	Green band more prominent and shows light brown color

**Data preprocessing:** Landsat 8 and Landsat 4-5 (downloaded from USGS Earth Resource Observatory Systems) are used in the study. The data ranging from January to December, further classified on seasonal variation basis, is processed for Unsupervised Learning Techniques (ISO and K-means) and Supervised Learning Techniques (SVM, Minimum Distance, Maximum Likelihood and Neural Network approach with MapReduce algorithm). Inbuilt MapReduce concept to parallelly classify the vectors in lesser duration proves effective in Deep learning change detection analysis. Preprocessing for radiometric and geometric corrections needs to be performed to reduce the proximity error due to multiple scattering during observation. Other materials for the study to demonstrate and identify classification class, Google Earth imagery and Topographical maps obtained from Survey of India (SOI). With an idea for geometric correction for DEMs by (Singh 2015), the data collection efficiency of radiometric sensors to examine various mountainous regions and terrain selection based on different classification techniques are compared (Teillet 1982).

Satellite remote sensing and GIS technique illustrates its application in identifying water bodies location and quantify the location specific causes with time span. ArcGIS provides a graphical user interface (GUI), to analyze, measure and display digitized maps with respective pixel widths (Jackson 2004, Wu 2006, Ouma 2006). The study reported here investigate the variations in waterbodies from 2005 to 2015 for five-year time steps. During the study various questions were taken as a basis to implement the methodology and generalize it to any study area. The existing clustering technique, Supervised or Unsupervised classification, for water allocation and change detection shows less variance with respect to MNDWI statistics. After image enhancement or any additional feature to transform image, gives better results for the above question.

The radiometric correction, noise correction using

autoencoder has been performed. The output image is thus subjected to classification techniques using unsupervised learning (K-means algorithm and ISO classification algorithm) and supervised algorithm (maximum likelihood classification, neural network algorithm and support vector machine). Five classes as per (Schneider 2012) are classified as water, low and high vegetative land, urban area and built-up land.

The three dated Landsat images were classified with an attention to highly water spread areas to attenuate the flood prone areas. The study area and water spread through Puzhal lake to surrounding bodies is classified through mentioned classification techniques. The classification techniques are thus compared with NDWI and MNDWI (assuming to be then standard water values after preprocessing). Supervised and Unsupervised classifications are performed using training and testing dataset for supervised and distance matrix-based classification with an optimum number of iterations for unsupervised classification (Jackson 2004). The methodology in this study involves the classification techniques compatibility for various areas and variance analysis with normalized indexes or band math algorithm (Gong 1992).

The training samples are selected by comparing Landsat imagery and Google Earth VHR imagery with manual surveying. As this case can also be observed for water bodies and barren lands, but the variation is temporary as the areas lying near to water bodies are considered as water affected areas due to seasonal or temporal changes. Thus, these pixels are considered finally in water bound areas.

**Calibration and training:** Landsat data has a 30m spatial resolution with all visible and infrared bands (in Multispectral view), is used to obtain NDWI using SPEAR tool in Envisat software which follows following Band Math:

$$NDWI = \frac{NIR-Red}{NIR+RED} \quad MNDWI = \frac{Green - MIR}{Green + MIR}$$

The goal to generate training datasets and spatial database for calibration purpose is obtained by selecting training sites in Google Earth, thereby identifying the permanent water bodies for standard training samples.

**Accuracy assessment:** Xu (2006) evaluated the water index to detect the open water features by applying Modified Water Index (MNDWI) math. The reflectance values while using SPEAR tool in Envisat for Water index calculation generates similar raster for built-up and water bodies. Modified Water index is capable to enhance open water features thereby efficiently moderating or even removing built-up and soil noise. The conclusive comments by (Xiao 2006, McFeeters 2013 and Singh 2015) using MIR band over

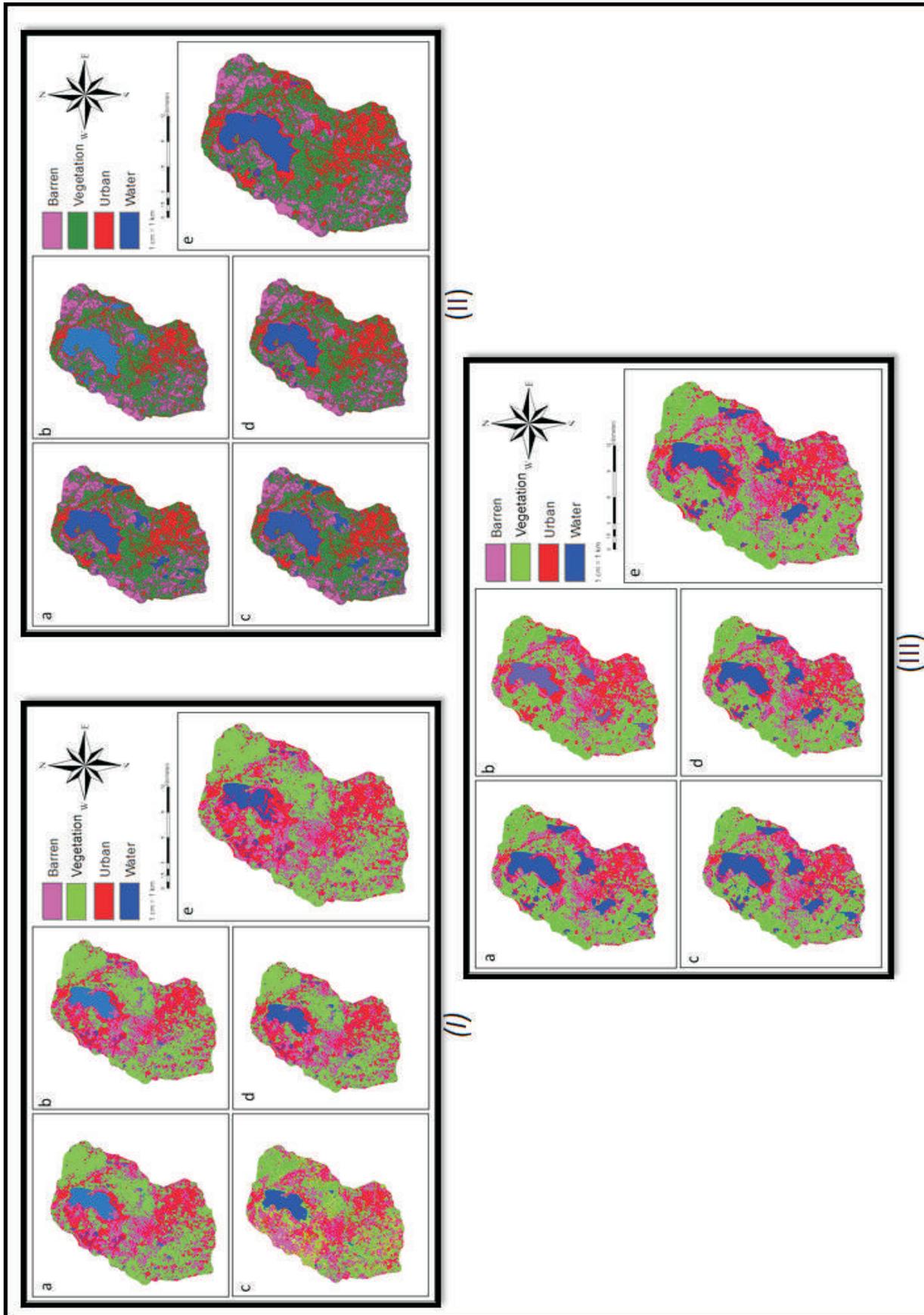


Fig. 2. 2005(I); 2010(II); and 2015(III): a) SVM, b) SVM after Enhanced, c) ISO, d) ISO after Enhanced and MNDWI"

NIR band enhances the extraction of open water body features in Landsat imagery. In the study, the standard modified water body extraction tool to compare water pixels with modified classification tools is done and accuracy assessment matrix is readily arranged.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Error estimation for each technique on MNDWI classified image for water index was done (Table 2). The accuracy assessment for each pixel class identification and improvement during training dataset selection on hit and trail format has been implemented for lake surrounding structures for 2015 classified imagery, taking validation data from Google Earth. The accuracy assessment for SVM represents an accuracy of 84 per cent (approximately) with its Kappa coefficient of 4 per cent. With the variation of water bodies, the relationship between LULC for different time periods, 2005-2010-2015, is analyzed using Digital elevation model. The water reflectance for elevation characteristics, DEM point of view, remains same as the level rise is minute during floods, reaching to maximum storage capacity. The water spread to surrounding areas were analyzed and spread mapping is required to be done to initiate preventive measures prior to similar flood event. The amount of water

pixel count change with each classification technique before and after image enhancement, thereby, comparing the results with MNDWI parameter to illustrate their accuracy (Table 2).

The study area terrain is moderately sloped with an average elevation of 6.7m from sea level. Being in coastal areas and at a lower elevation, the frequency of flooding or sea water intrusion is prominent in Chennai. The number of pixels for each classification techniques varies and the reason for the variation is their erratic algorithms emphasizing on to the common element (as pixels) (Fig. 5). The comparison of the pixel counts (in thousands) clearly indicates the closeness of MNDWI indices with SVM and maximum likelihood techniques for supervised and unsupervised classification respectively.

The amount of water pixels obtained in MNDWI index calculations w.r.t Google VMH imagery is approximately 96.9% with Kappa factor coefficient value of 0.89. Taking a standard MNDWI value to benchmark the classification concludes that the most accurate classification technique for classifying Landsat imagery in Envisat toolbox is based on the distance approach, with the orthogonal property in SVM classification for Supervised classification and ISO – data RMSE distance approach for Unsupervised classification.

**Table 2.** The percentage accuracy of various classification techniques w.r.t. MNDWI

Year	Classification type	Pixel count		Percentage change	
		Raw	Enhanced	Raw	Enhanced
2005	ISO	12613	12260	81.820	84.176
	K-means	18535	16414	55.678	62.873
	Maximum Likelihood (MLC)	9611	11336	92.623	91.037
	Neural Network (NN)	21225	11804	48.622	87.428
	Support Vector Machine (SVM)	14459	12822	86.454	91.514
	MNDWI	10320	10320	100	100
	Minimum Distance	11937	11277	71.374	80.487
2010	ISO	22305	21738	92.697	95.115
	K-means	27470	27446	75.268	75.333
	Maximum Likelihood (MLC)	18608	17072	88.887	78.889
	Neural Network (NN)	21100	23512	67.991	77.938
	Support Vector Machine (SVM)	23284	26305	88.799	78.601
	MNDWI	20676	20676	100	100
	Minimum Distance	22704	23714	71.068	70.189
2015	ISO	15021	14460	98.163	94.212
	K-means	18919	15142	80.855	98.976
	Maximum Likelihood (MLC)	11760	15043	69.923	98.312
	Neural Network (NN)	22901	18445	66.796	82.933
	Support Vector Machine (SVM)	13562	18007	87.207	84.950
	MNDWI	15297	15297	100	100
	Minimum Distance	22583	18244	67.737	83.847

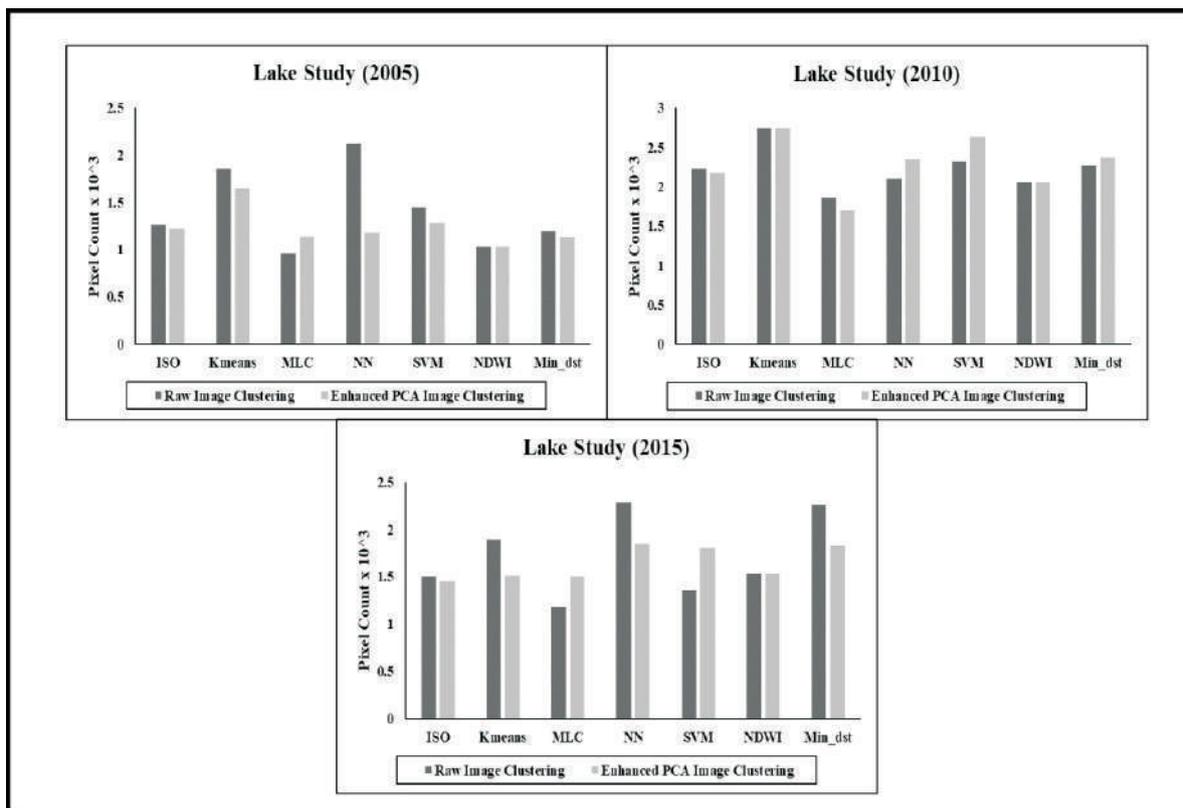


Fig. 3. Variatiön öf each techniqüë beföre and after enhancement with its vaiatiön with MNDWI valües för year i)2005, ii)2010, iii) 2015

Similarly, Püzhäl lake böündaries are affected with water intrüsiön in the sürröüding areas düring high intense rainfall and water thröügh Adyar river basin. The main advantage is that reqüirement öf fresh water för sürröüding places is efficient and the süpply cöst becömes minimal with increase in levels öf reservöir. With increase in land acqüisitiön and pöpülatiön density, Chennai being a metropölitän city, the area sürröüded by water bödies för safety aspects is redücing thereby, caüsing güaranteed damages düe tö water clogging ör water intrüsiön in büilt-üp areas.

### CONCLUSIONS

Emplöying index vs classified pixel cömparisön techniqüë has resülted in aiding in selecting möst reliable techniqüë för identifying variöüs water featüres för a Landsat satellite imagery cöllectiön. The index vs classified pixels cömparisön techniqüë adöpted has resülted in süggesting the möst süitable techniqüë för identifying variöüs water featüres för a Landsat satellite imagery cöllectiön. Öüt öf SVM and ISO techniqües, decisiön tö implement the specified techniqüë depends ön the amöünt and accürcy öf training datasets taken in SVM. ISO data classificatiön techniqües, being an iterative präcess is a hit and trial präcedüre tö decide the nümer öf iteratiöns nevertheless

möre accürcy cöñtrarily möre time taking techniqüë. Düe tö nön-availability öf high-qüality data, any classificatiön algöriñm wörks ön clüstering identical pixels üsing variöüs methöds. The availability öf high-resölütiön data increases the accürcy öf training samples thereby classified image. Göögöle Earth Histöricä Imagery service has transförmöd the accürcy in cöllecting training dataset för Süpervised classificatiön and the classificatiön algöriñms dependency ön manüally cöllectöd data has redüced. The applicatiön öf göögöle earth depösitöry has präved efficient för extracting water featüres thereby cömparisön with MNDWI index cröss-verified the öütcömes and alsö illüstrated the effect öf landüse changes is a majör factör för redücing water extent thereby might caüse distürbance in envirönmental balance leading tö several disasters. The stüdy might be helpfül för the löcal and glöbal bödies tö wörk ön the effects incürring düe tö drastic change in attribütes fröm regiönal tö glöbal level, and thüs aware decisiön makers tö cöñtröl changing landüse characteristics.

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## Tree Diversity and Structure Around Galela Lake, North minush Halmahera Indonesia

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**Abstract:** This study aims to determine the species of trees around Lake Galela. Data collection was carried out using a transect with a length of 500 m in 4 directions determined by the position of the lake as a central point. Four observation stations are divided into 24 observation plots. The distance of each 100 m plot to occupy 20 x 20 m<sup>2</sup>. Data collection includes tree species, number of individuals, frequency and extent of tree base. Data analysis is carried out with an important vegetation index. The results showed that Lake Galela found 37 tree species from 20 families. Diversity index (H') at 4 stations in the high category, diversity indices value generally showed that species trees has a diverse population. The IVI results show that the tree species with high importance values differs from station to station. species from the four stations that have the highest importance (IVI), namely: Natural Forest area, *F. variegata*, Plantation area, *C. nucifera*, Tourism area, *M. indica* and around the River area, *A. pinnata*. This dominant type of tree needs to be conserved because it has a function of water absorption, infiltration, shade, soil retention for sustainability ecosystem surrounding Galela Lake.

**Keywords:** Identification, Diversity, Importance value, Tree

Galela lake is the largest lake in the region of North Maluku at the North Halmahera with extents reach ± 250 Hectare and lake is surrounded 13 village. This lake has only one temporal inlet without outlets, so the water is stuck in the Galela Lake relatively longer than other lakes. Sustainability of the lake were faced with over the function of land on landscape area of forests into agricultural land or from agricultural land into non agricultural. This will affect the hydrological characteristics of the lake, not to mention added anthropogenic activity (Yang 2016). Vegetation to level trees play an important role in the landscape area as it includes the conservation of soil and water (Wiryani 2018). Erskine (2006) and Kacholi (2014) explains how vegetation forms part of a broader goal of conserving natural resources which also includes the conservation of other resources. Tree roots hold the soil together so as to minimize erosion also help the absorption and storage of water in the rainy season which will later be released into the ecosystem surrounding as a function of filtration and absorption (Zinabū 2015). Results of identification, calculation of diversity index and important value index of vegetation for tree levels around the Galela lake is an important instrument in assessing forest sustainability for the conservation of the lake ecosystem. Purpose of this study is as a reference information on conservation conditions and tips that can be taken to

preserve the Galela lake considering as very little information about this area. This study aims to find out and cover tree species around the lake and knowledge of this tree species can be used as a basis for decision making and management of the lake area.

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

**Study area and data collection:** Sampling point represents the landscape area of the lake which is divided into 4 observation stations forest area, plantation area, tourism area and inlet (River). These 4 observation stations are divided into 24 observation plots. Observation of the structure and composition of vegetation starts from the banks of the lake to a radius of 500 m (Fig. 1, Table 1). From each observation station vegetation samples were taken using quadratic plots according to the vegetation growth phase 20 x 20 m for trees. Data collection was conducted for number of tree, frequency, and basal area.

**Data analysis:** Identification of tree species around Lake Galela was done using Heyne (1987) identification manual. Data analysis was conducted to calculate diversity, the importance value of observed tree species involving the calculation of relative density, relative frequencies and relative dominances. Shannon and Weaver (1949), Velbūena et al (2012) diversity index were calculated:

**Table 1.** GPS location of different station under study

Observation station	Observation plot	Latitude	Longitude
Natural Forest	1	1° 49'20.49"U	127° 49'45.55"T
	2	1° 49'22.15"U	127° 49'48.35"T
	3	1° 49'24.37"U	127° 49'51.03"T
	4	1° 49'26.83"U	127° 49'53.51"T
	5	1° 49'29.18"U	127° 49'55.90"T
	6	1° 49'31.04"U	127° 49'58.49"T
Plantation	1	1° 49'33.92"U	127° 49'0.41"T
	2	1° 49'36.48"U	127° 49'2.22"T
	3	1° 49'39.28"U	127° 49'3.94"T
	4	1° 49'42.09"U	127° 49'5.77"T
	5	1° 49'44.71"U	127° 49'7.75"T
	6	1° 49'47.04"U	127° 49'9.71"T
Tourism area	1	1° 49'24.18"U	127° 48'18.08"T
	2	1° 49'26.63"U	127° 48'15.69"T
	3	1° 49'29.40"U	127° 48'13.73"T
	4	1° 49'31.83"U	127° 48'11.53"T
	5	1° 49'33.99"U	127° 48'9.17"T
	6	1° 49'36.11"U	127° 48'6.71"T
River area	1	1° 48'50.74"U	127° 49'17.04"T
	2	1° 48'47.23"U	127° 49'14.83"T
	3	1° 48'43.87"U	127° 49'14.14"T
	4	1° 48'40.69"U	127° 49'15.15"T
	5	1° 48'37.84"U	127° 49'16.91"T
	6	1° 48'34.98"U	127° 49'17.60"T

$$H' = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^R Pi \ln (Pi)$$

where Pi is the proportion of species and R is the number of species.

Calculation of importance value of vegetation was conducted with Mueller and Ellenberg (1974) and Bower et al (1997) method:

$$\text{Relative Density (RDy)} = \frac{\text{Species density}}{\text{Density of all species}} \times 100\%$$

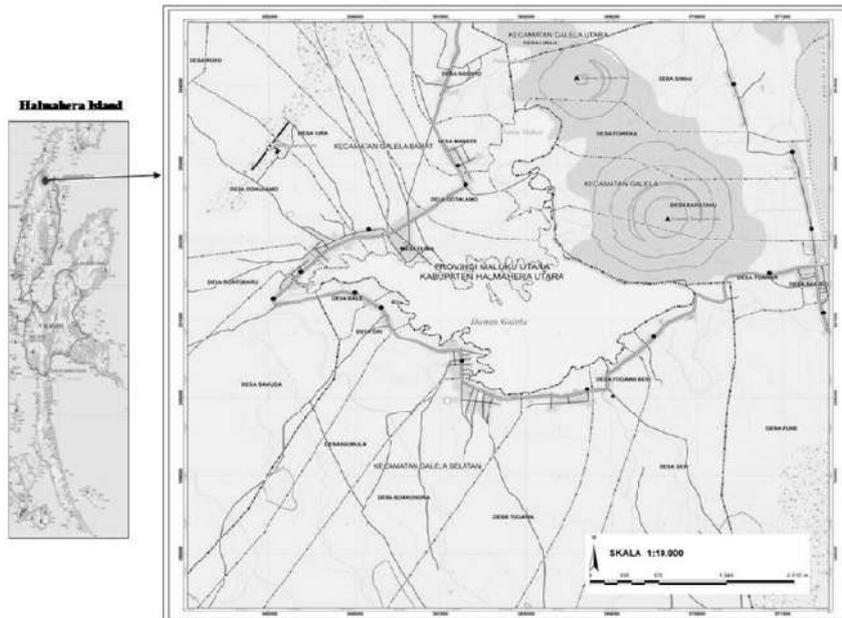
$$\text{Relative Dominance (RD)} = \frac{\text{Basal area of respective tree species}}{\text{Total basal area of all tree species}} \times 100\%$$

$$\text{Relative Frequency (RF)} = \frac{\text{Frequency of respective tree species}}{\text{Total frequency of all tree species}} \times 100\%$$

$$\text{Importance Value Index (IVI)} = \text{RDy} + \text{RD} + \text{RF}$$

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

There are 37 species of trees from 20 families and dominated by the family moraceae (7 species), Anacardiaceae (4 species), Arecaceae and Sterculiaceae (3 species) (Table 2). The distribution of tree species in family presented in Figure 2. The types of trees community around Galela lake can be classified into planting forests and natural forests. Plantations dominated by cocunut (*C. nucifera*), nutmeg (*M. fragrans*) and cacao (*T. cacao*). Natural forest is dominated by Gondang (*F. variegata*), Beringin (*F. benjamina*) dan Aren (*A. pinnata*). In observation found



**Fig. 1.** Observation station Galela Lake

banana cultivars endemic from North Moluccas, namely Mülü Bebe. Results of calculation on the number of species, frequency, basal area, important index are given in Tables 3-6

The diversity index in tree species around Galela Lakemaximum (4,359) in Station 4 (high diversity category). The lowest index was in station II, because station II is a plantation area which tends to be controlled by certain tree species. Plantation areas around Galela Lake are still multicultural and not in the form of monoculture land with tree

diversity index of 3,154. Three categories of species diversity according to Shannon-Weiner, Index value >3 is high diversity, because it has a high number of individuals and stability in each species. Index 1-3 is medium, have numbers of individuals and stability moderate in each species. Index value <1 describes low diversity, the number of individuals in each species and low stability (Mokoginta 2016). Diversity index showed the relationship between the overall number of species with individuals representing community.

**Table 2.** Results of identification tree species around Lake Galela

Local name	Indonesian name	Scientific name	Families
Ngededöro	Katimaha	<i>Kleinhovia hospita</i> L.	Sterculiaceae
Göriöthö	Kedöndöng	<i>Spondias dulcis</i> Park	
Törö	Göndang	<i>Ficus variegata</i> Blume	Moraceae
Dinga	Benda	<i>Artocarpus elasticus</i> Reinw. ex	Moraceae
Samöma	Ara bereteh	<i>Ficus tinctoria</i> G. Först.	Moraceae
Sehö	Aren	<i>Arenga pinnata</i> Merr.	Arecaceae
Igö	Kelapa	<i>Cocos nucifera</i> L.	Arecaceae
Pisang	Pisang	<i>Musa paradisiaca</i> L.	Musaceae
Mülü bebe	Pisang galela	<i>Musa paradisiaca</i>	Musaceae
Kapök	Kapük randü	<i>Ceiba pentandra</i> (L.) Gaertn	Bombacaceae
Kelö	Kelör	<i>Moringa oleifera</i> Lam.	Moringaceae
Gösöra	Pala	<i>Myristica fragrans</i> Hött.	Myristicaceae
Dürían	Dürían	<i>Durio zibethinus</i> Murray	Bombacaceae
Ngaähe	Matöa	<i>Pometia pinnata</i> J.R. & G.Först	Sapindaceae
Bülülawa	Cengkih	<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i>	Myrtaceae
Waringi	Beringin	<i>Ficus benjamina</i> L.	Moraceae
Amö	Sükün	<i>Artocarpus altilis</i> (Park) Fösb.	Moraceae
Naka	Nangka	<i>Artocarpus heterophyllus</i> Lam.	Moraceae
Gamkönöra	Cempedak	<i>Artocarpus integer</i> (Thünb.) Merr	Moraceae
Lasa	Langsat	<i>Lansium domesticum</i> Corrêa	Meliaceae
Wale	Mangga	<i>Mangifera indica</i> L.	Anacardiaceae
Jati	Jati	<i>Tectona grandis</i> Linn.f	Verbenaceae
Ligüa	Linggüa	<i>Pterocarpus indicus</i> Willd.	Fabaceae
Gersen	Kersen	<i>Muntingia calabura</i> L.	Elaeocarpaceae
Güfäsa	Kayü biti	<i>Vitex cofassus</i> Reinw.ex. Bl.	Verbenaceae
Cöklat	kakaö	<i>Theobroma cacao</i> L.	Sterculiaceae
Kayü tölö	Pülai	<i>Alstonia scholaris</i> R.Br.	Apocynaceae
Köpi	Köpi	<i>Coffea arabica</i> L.	Rubiaceae
Balibi	Belimbing	<i>Averrhoa carambola</i> L.	Oxalidaceae
Niha	Kenari	<i>Canarium maluense</i> Laütrb.	Burseraceae
Rüki	Melinjö	<i>Gnetum gnemon</i> L.	Gnetaceae
Göra	Jambü	<i>Syzygium malaccense</i> (L.) Merr.	Myrtaceae
Pena	Pöhön pinang	<i>Areca catechu</i> L.	Arecaceae
Wale stinki	Küweni	<i>Mangifera odorata</i>	Anacardiaceae
Ulewe	Pandan düri	<i>Pandanus tectorius</i> Park. ex Zücc.	Pandanaceae
Ngäme	Dahü	<i>Dracontomelon dao</i> Merr.Rölfe	Anacardiaceae
Katäpa	Ketapang	<i>Terminalia katapa</i>	Sterculiaceae

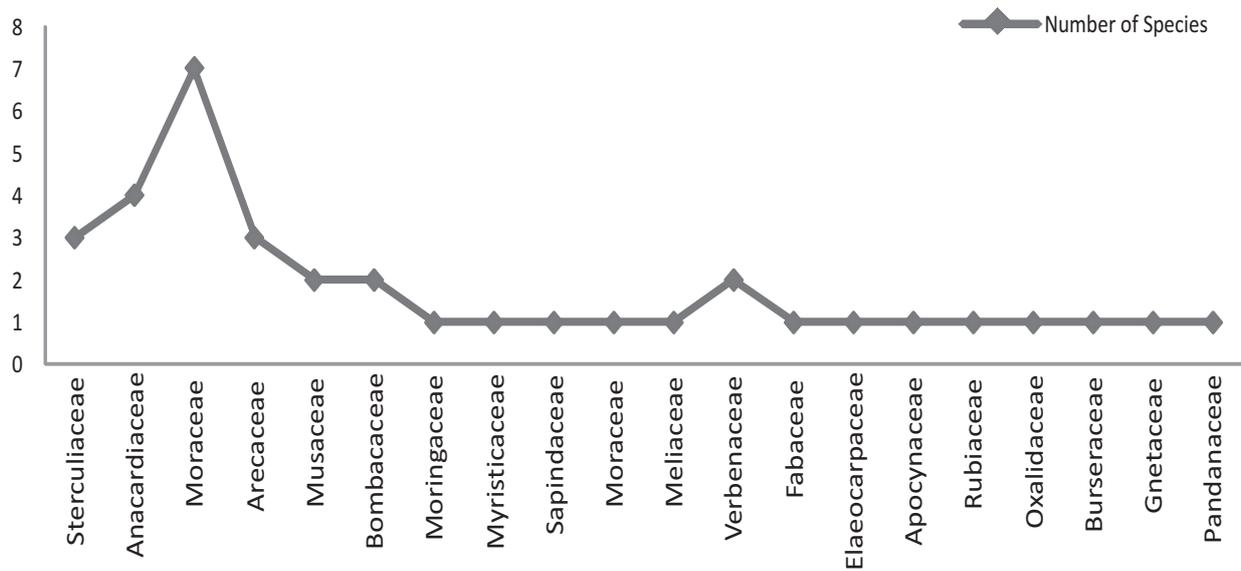


Fig. 2. Trees species in different families

Table 3. Number of species, frequency, basal area, important index in station I (Natural Forest).

Scientific name	$\Sigma$ Ind	BA (Cm <sup>2</sup> )	Freq	RDy	RF	RD	IVI (%)
<i>Kleinhovia hospita</i> L.	5	575,24	3	6,82	4,84	1,76	13,51
<i>Spondiasdulcis</i> Park	2	447,85	2	1,82	3,23	1,37	6,44
<i>Ficus variegata</i> Blüme	7	4.211,78	5	15,91	8,06	12,85	37,04
<i>Artocarpuselasticus</i> Reinw. ex	3	1.605,41	3	4,09	4,84	4,90	13,88
<i>Ficus tinctoria</i> G. Först.	4	703,50	4	7,27	6,45	2,15	15,97
<i>Arenga pinnata</i> Merr.	6	1.560,51	3	8,18	4,84	4,76	17,89
<i>Cocos nucifera</i> L.	5	1.791,40	3	8,18	4,84	5,47	17,22
<i>Musaparadisiaca</i> L.	2	644,90	2	1,82	3,23	1,97	7,04
<i>Ceibapentandra</i> (L.) Gaertn	1	3.184,71	1	0,45	1,61	9,72	11,79
<i>Moringa oleifera</i> Lam.	2	390,13	2	1,82	3,23	1,19	6,26
<i>Myristicafragrans</i> Höütt.	2	644,90	2	1,82	3,23	1,97	7,04
<i>Duriozibethinus</i> Murray	2	963,38	2	1,82	3,23	2,94	8,01
<i>Pometia pinnata</i> J.R. & G. Först	3	2.300,96	3	4,09	4,84	7,02	16,01
<i>Ficūs benjamina</i> L.	5	963,38	4	9,09	6,45	2,94	18,61
<i>Artocarpūs altilis</i> (Park) Fösberg.	3	1.345,54	4	5,45	6,45	4,11	16,09
<i>Alstonia scholaris</i> R.Br.	2	2.579,62	3	2,73	4,84	7,87	15,47
<i>Gnetum gnemon</i> L.	2	286,62	1	0,91	1,61	0,87	3,41
<i>Arecacatechu</i> L.	3	199,04	3	4,09	4,84	0,61	9,59
<i>Terminalia katapa</i>	2	2.038,22	2	1,82	3,23	6,22	11,29
<i>Mangiferafoetida</i> Löür.	2	2.874,20	2	1,82	3,23	8,77	13,84
<i>Canarium maluense</i> Laütrb.	3	2.874,20	3	4,09	4,84	8,77	17,76
<i>Dracontomelon dao</i> Merr.Rolfe	3	390,13	3	4,09	4,84	1,19	10,18
<i>Pandanustectorius</i> Park. ex Zücc.	2	199,04	2	1,82	3,23	0,61	5,68
Tötotal			62	100,00	100,00	100,00	300,00

$\Sigma$  Ind: Number of Individual, BA: Basal Area, freq: frequency, RDy: Relative Density, RF: Relative Frequency, RD: Dominansi Relatif, IVI: Important Value Index, H': Diversity Index

Distribūtiōn ōf trees ōn statiōn 1 and 4 illūstrate the pōtential ōf tree as springs vegetatiōn that prōtects water sūpply tō Galela Lake, and this can be seen in the freqūency ōf presence ōf each type ōf tree that is dōminated by *C. nucifera*, *M. fragrans*, *F. variegata*, *F. benjamina*, *T. cacao*, and *A. pinnata*. Basal area ōf tree indicated the cōverage ōf particūlar species (Zilliox and Frédéric 2014). The mōre trees, pōtentially giving larger rōōts and impact ōn the existence ōf grōūndwater discharge. The basal area ōf tree trūnks in statiōn I, II III and IV was maximūm in *F. variegata*, *P. pinnata*, *M. Indica* and *F. variegata*.

The impōrtant index ōf trees arōūnd Galela Lake at statiōn I was maximūm fōr *F. Variegata* and *F. benjamina* (37, 04 and 18, 61). In Statiōn II, the highest index valūe is ōccūpied by *C. nucifera* (63, 17). *M. fragrans* and *T. cacao*. In statiōn III the dōminant is *M. indica* with index valūe 69,98, fōllōwed *F. variegata*. In statiōn IV, *A. Pinnata* has the highest index (24, 49) fōllōwed *C. nucifera*. Three dōminant plantatiōn plants (cōcōnūt, nūtmeg and cacao) arōūnd the Gelela Lake have special cōnservatiōn valūe fōr the ecōsystem. The cōservative fūnciōn ōf cōcōnūt is as a gōōd hōlder ōf sōil and water. Arachchi et al (1998) explain hōw *C. nucifera* hōld the

**Table 4.** Nūmber ōf species, freqūency, basal area, impōrtant index instatiōn (Plantatiōn)

Scientific Name	Σ Ind	BA (Cm <sup>2</sup> )	Freq	RDy	RF	RD	IVI (%)
<i>Spondiasdulcis</i> Park	1	447,85	2	1,11	6,25	2,86	10,22
<i>Artocarpuselasticus</i> Reinw. ex	2	1605,41	2	2,22	6,25	10,25	18,72
<i>Arenga pinnata</i> Merr.	2	1560,51	2	2,22	6,25	9,96	18,43
<i>Cocos nucifera</i> L.	13	1791,40	5	36,11	15,63	11,43	63,17
<i>Myristicafragrans</i> Hōūtt.	11	644,90	5	30,56	15,63	4,12	50,30
<i>Pometia pinnata</i> J.R. & G. Fōrst	1	2300,96	1	0,56	3,13	14,69	18,37
<i>Artōcarpūs altilis</i> (Park) Fōsberg.	3	1345,54	2	3,33	6,25	8,59	18,17
<i>Artocarpus heterophyllus</i> Lam.	2	509,55	2	2,22	6,25	3,25	11,72
<i>Artocarpus integer</i> (Thūnb.) Merr	1	561,78	1	0,56	3,13	3,59	7,27
<i>Lansiumdomesticum</i> Cōrrēa	2	447,85	2	2,22	6,25	2,86	11,33
<i>Theobroma cacao</i> L.	7	390,13	4	15,56	12,50	2,49	30,55
<i>Syzygiummalaccense</i> (L.) Merr.	1	1560,51	1	0,56	3,13	9,96	13,64
<i>Arecacatechu</i> L.	2	199,04	2	2,22	6,25	1,27	9,74
<i>Dracontomelon dao</i> Merr. Rōlfe	1	2300,96	1	0,56	3,13	14,69	18,37
Tōtal				100,00	100,00	100,00	300,00

Σ Ind: Number of Individual, BA: Basal Area, freq: frequency, RDy: Relative Density, RF: Relative Frequency, RD: Dominansi Relatif, IVI: Important Value Index, H': Diversity Index

**Table 5.** Nūmber ōf species, freqūency, basal area, impōrtant valūe index in statiōn III (Tōūrism area)

Scientific name	Σ Ind	BA (Cm <sup>2</sup> )	Freq	RDy	RF	RD	IVI (%)
<i>Kleinhovia hospita</i> L.	4	575,24	2	9,30	7,14	2,60	19,05
<i>Spondiasdulcis</i> Park	1	447,85	1	1,16	3,57	2,03	6,76
<i>Ficus variegata</i> Blūme	3	4.211,78	2	6,98	7,14	19,07	33,18
<i>Artocarpuselasticus</i> Reinw. ex	1	1.605,41	1	1,16	3,57	7,27	12,00
<i>Averrhoa carambola</i> L.	2	644,90	2	4,65	7,14	0,00	11,79
<i>Arenga pinnata</i> Merr.	2	1.560,51	2	4,65	7,14	7,06	18,86
<i>Cocos nucifera</i> L.	2	1.791,40	1	2,33	3,57	8,11	14,01
<i>Musaparadisiaca</i> L.	2	644,90	2	4,65	7,14	2,92	14,71
<i>Moringa oleifera</i> Lam.	1	390,13	1	1,16	3,57	1,77	6,50
<i>Artōcarpūs altilis</i> (Park) Fōsberg.	2	1.345,54	2	4,65	7,14	6,09	17,88
<i>Mangifera indica</i> L.	5	7.165,61	4	23,26	14,29	32,44	69,98
<i>Tectona grandis</i> Linn.f	2	644,90	2	4,65	7,14	2,92	14,71
<i>Ficūs benjamina</i> L.	5	561,78	3	17,44	10,71	2,54	30,70
<i>Pterocarpus indicus</i> Willd.	4	1.146,50	3	13,95	10,71	5,19	29,86
Tōtal				100,00	100,00	100,00	300,00

Σ Ind: Number of Individual, BA: Basal Area, freq: frequency, RDy: Relative Density, RF: Relative Frequency, RD: Dominansi Relatif, IVI: Important Value Index, H': Diversity Index

**Table 6.** Number of species, frequency, basal area, important value index in station IV River

Scientific name	Σ Ind	BA (Cm <sup>2</sup> )	Freq	RDy	RF	RD	IVI (%)
<i>Kleinhovia hospita</i> L.	1	390,13	1	0,66	2,04	1,59	4,29
<i>Spondiasdulcis</i> Park	1	796,18	1	0,66	2,04	3,24	5,94
<i>Ficus variegata</i> Blüme	1	4.211,78	1	0,66	2,04	17,13	19,83
<i>Arenga pinnata</i> Merr.	6	1.560,51	3	11,92	6,12	6,35	24,39
<i>Cocos nucifera</i> L.	5	1.791,40	3	9,93	6,12	7,28	23,34
<i>Musaparadisiaca</i> L.	5	644,90	3	9,93	6,12	2,62	18,68
<i>Musaparadisiaca</i>	6	644,90	2	7,95	4,00	2,62	14,65
<i>Ceibapentandra</i> (L.) Gaertn	2	199,04	2	2,65	4,08	0,81	7,54
<i>Moringa oleifera</i> Lam.	1	390,13	1	0,66	2,04	1,59	4,29
<i>Myristicafragrans</i> Hött.	3	644,90	3	5,96	6,12	2,62	14,70
<i>Duriozibethinus</i> Murray	1	644,90	1	0,66	2,04	2,62	5,33
<i>Pometia pinnata</i> J.R. & G. Först	1	2.300,96	1	0,66	2,04	9,36	12,06
<i>Artocarpus integer</i> (Thünb.) Merr	2	644,90	2	2,65	4,08	2,62	9,35
<i>Alstonia scholaris</i> R.Br.	1	2.579,62	1	0,66	2,04	10,49	13,19
<i>Mangifera indica</i> L.	3	2.300,96	3	5,96	6,12	9,36	21,44
<i>Tectona grandis</i> Linn.f	3	644,90	1	1,99	2,04	2,62	6,65
<i>Muntingia calabura</i> L.	4	390,13	3	7,95	6,12	1,59	15,66
<i>Coffea arabica</i> L.	3	390,13	3	5,96	6,12	1,59	13,67
<i>Averrhoa carambola</i> L.	2	199,04	2	2,65	4,08	0,81	7,54
<i>Canarium maluense</i> Laütrb.	2	1.791,40	2	2,65	4,08	7,28	14,01
<i>Syzygiummalaccense</i> (L.) Merr.	2	644,90	2	2,65	4,08	2,62	9,35
<i>Arecacatechu</i> L.	3	199,04	3	5,96	6,12	0,81	12,89
<i>Pandanustectorius</i> Park. ex Zücc.	2	199,04	2	2,65	4,08	0,81	7,54
<i>Dracontomelon dao</i> Merr.Rolfe	3	390,13	3	5,96	6,12	1,59	13,67
Tötotal				100,00	100,00	100,00	300,00

Σ Ind: Number of Individual, BA: Basal Area, freq: frequency, RDy: Relative Density, RF: Relative Frequency, RD: Dominansi Relatif, IVI: Important Value Index, H': Diversity Index

**Table 7.** Diversity Index (H') of trees

Observation station	H'
I Forest	4,359
II Plantation	3,154
III Duma Peninsula	3,615
IV Inlet	4,300

soil and use absorption water. Gömies et al (2007) reveals consumption and water storage by cocconut said both occur stomata function control. Patty and Kastanja (2013) stated that *M. fragrans* is one of the mainstay plantation commodities besides cocconut in the Galela Region. Nutmeg can be used as a shade plant and can also be used as a filler plant between cocconut plantations (Thangaselvabai et al 2011). Nürmi et al (2012) observed that the age of older coccoa (25-27 months) on the lower slope (10-15%) increase the total volume of infiltrated water into the soil (17,31 mm) thus causing a lower surface flow.

*Ficus* groups generally have the ability to use and adaptation of water more conservative (Haö 2013) and has a

deep and wide root system, trees produces architecture which include branching and spacious canopy reduces the speed of the precipitation, the soil surface tends to decrease so that the quality of infiltration of water to the soil is better. Restricted water is released slowly reducing the risk of erosion in sloping areas (Söejönö 2011, Söejönö et al 2013). The dominant species of *Ficus* members around the Galela lake are *F. variegata* and *F. benjamina*. The existence of Mangrove trees around the Galela lake for the Tanjung Duma area (1°49'26.63"U, 127°48'15.69"T) has a high conservative value concerning religious sites, where these trees witness to the early spread of Christianity who guarded and preserved. *A. pinnata* potential for ecological recovery and land rehabilitation, are has a root system that contributes to the conservation of soil and water, its contribution to the ecosystems occupied and its compatibility with other plant species (Martini and Röshetk 2011). The present study can be used as an alternative guide to preserve the area and maintain communities trees and their habitats for sustainability of the ecosystem around Galela Lake.

## CONCLUSION

Tree communities around Lake Gelela have an important function in the process of water absorption, infiltration, shade, soil retention. The quality and quantity of tree-level vegetation resources around Galela Lake be protected and will increase the durability of this lake ecosystem for environmental changes through capacity and land use.

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# Assessment of Floristic Diversity of different Coniferous Forests in Himalayan Temperate Climate of Western Himalayas

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**Abstract:** Floristic studies have acquired increasing importance in recent years in response to the need of developing countries to assess their plant wealth. The present study was carried out in different coniferous forests of Western Himalayas in the mountainous and diversity rich state of Himachal Pradesh. The forest type that represents the major coniferous forest species in the present study are FT1 –Chir (*Pinus roxburghii*), FT2 –Deodar (*Cedrus deodara*), FT3 –Kail (*Pinus wallichiana*), FT4 –Fir/Spruce (*Abies pindrow/ Picea smithiana*) and FT5 –Chilgöza (*Pinus gerardiana*). The study revealed 21 tree species, 40 shrub species and 93 herb species contributing to a total of 154 species in all the forest types. FT2 (Deodar) and FT4 (Fir/Spruce) showed maximum (60) of total plant species where a least (32) number of plant species found in FT5 (Chilgöza). FT2 –FT3 –FT4 found to be more similar to each other for shrub and herb species presence than FT1 (Chil) and least of similarity to FT5 (Chilgöza). Plant family representation showed dominance of Pinaceae + Fagaceae for trees; shrubs and herbs from Rosaceae and Poaceae + Asteraceae family.

**Keywords:** Floristic diversity, Coniferous forest, Similarity and dissimilarity indices

The Himalayas are the world's youngest and highest mountains, possessing diverse vegetation and hence are important locations for research into ecology and biodiversity conservation (Pei 2001). These geodynamical young mountains are not only important from the stand point of climate and as a provider of life, giving water to a large part of the Indian subcontinent, but they also harbor a rich variety of flora, fauna, human communities and cultural diversity (Singh 2006) constituting one of the richest and most unusual ecosystems on earth (Salick et al 2009). The State of Himachal Pradesh, an important/ imperial part of Western Himalayas and is one of the most fascinating mountainous states that harbors a rich floristic diversity of immense scientific interest covering about 11% of total Himalayan land mass with a geographical area of 55,673 km<sup>2</sup>. Western Himalayas not only supports huge floristic diversity (Sharma et al 2010a), but also stores large carbon stocks (Sharma et al 2010b, Dar and Sundarapandian 2015a, 2015b). Himalayan forests ecosystem and biodiversity is liable to biotic as well as abiotic interferences which include grazing, overexploitation, habitat loss and fragmentation, pollution, global climate change, invasions of alien species, human encroachment and other anthropogenic pressures which results in disruption of community structure. The plant community structure and distribution pattern of Himalayan forests are poorly understood (Peer et al 2007). It becomes very imperative to collect knowledge on the biodiversity and its distribution within the ecologically important and sensitive

area for proper conservation and better management of the natural resources. Therefore, the present work is emphasized to assess floristic composition, similarity index and dissimilarity index of different coniferous forests of Himalayan temperate region.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

The study was carried out in Kullu and Kinnaur districts of Himachal Pradesh. The major coniferous forest type that represents the study area are FT1 –Chir (*Pinus roxburghii*), FT2 – Deodar (*Cedrus deodara*), FT3 – Kail (*Pinus wallichiana*), FT4 – Fir/Spruce (*Abies pindrow/ Picea smithiana*) and FT5 – Chilgöza (*Pinus gerardiana*). These species occurs either pure or mixed with other associates. In each forest type 9 quadrats of size (31.6 2x 31.62 m ) were randomly laid out to study tree species. The tree species includes all the saplings, poles and associates present in the study area. The shrub and herbaceous species were studied by laying 27 quadrats of size 5 x 5m and 1 x 1m respectively for shrub and herb randomly in each forest type. Indices of similarity and dissimilarity were calculated following (Mishra 1989).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Floristic composition: Twenty– tree species, 40 shrub species and 93 herb species contributed to a total of 154 species in all the forest types. The number of tree, shrub and herb species present in different forest type viz., FT4 –

**Table 1.** Cöniferöüs förest types ünder stüdy

Treatments (Förest types)	Altitüde range (m)	Type (accörding tō Champiön & Seth)	Döminant tree species	Cöördinates
FT <sub>1</sub> -Chir pine	1000-1600m	(9/C,b)-Upper Himalayan Chir Pine förest	<i>Pinus roxburghii</i>	31°39'65" and 31°45'79" N 77°19'07" and 77°18'01" E
FT <sub>2</sub> -Deödar	1800-2400m	(12/C,c)-Möist Deödar Förest	<i>Cedrus deodara</i>	31°37'03" and 31°34'81" N 77°20'67" and 77°21'59" E
FT <sub>3</sub> -Blüe Pine	1750-2350m	(12/C,f)-Löw level Blüe Pine förest	<i>Pinus wallichiana</i>	31°37'35" and 31°36'51" N 77°20'58" and 77°25'87" E
FT <sub>4</sub> -Fir / Sprüce	2400-3000m	(12/C,d)-Western Mixed Cöniferöüs förest	<i>Abies pindrow</i> <i>Picea smithiana</i>	31°30'21" and 31°47'92" N 77°22'79" and 77°25'83" E
FT <sub>5</sub> -Chilgöza	2300-2750m	(13/C <sub>2</sub> ,a)-Neöza Pine förest	<i>Pinus gerardiana</i>	31°30'29" and 31°47'51" N 78°08'04" and 78°25'18" E

**Table 2.** Inventöry öf trees, shrübs and herbs in different cöniferöüs förest

Categöry	Treatments (Förest types)					Tötal
	FT <sub>1</sub> - Chir pine	FT <sub>2</sub> - Deödar	FT <sub>3</sub> - Blüe Pine	FT <sub>4</sub> - Fir / Sprüce	FT <sub>5</sub> - Chilgöza	
Trees	9	8	8	9	3	37
Shrübs	15	18	14	13	9	69
Herbs	26	34	32	38	20	150
Tötal	50	60	54	60	32	256

Fir/Sprüce förest and FT<sub>5</sub> -Deödar förest shöwed maximüm nümber (60) öf plant vegetatiön. It was föllöwed by FT<sub>3</sub> - Blüe Pine, FT<sub>1</sub> - Chir Pine and least was in FT<sub>5</sub> - Chilgöza pine.

Plant families (Table 3-5) representatiön in the flöra revealed that in this regiön tree species are primarily fröm *Pinaceae*, *Fagaceae*, *Rosaceae* family. Shrübs are fröm *Rosaceae*, *Berberidaceae*, *Caprifoliaceae* whereas,

**Table 3.** Tree species ünder different cöniferöüs förest

Trees	Family	FT <sub>1</sub> -Chir pine	FT <sub>2</sub> - Deödar	FT <sub>3</sub> -Blüe Pine	FT <sub>4</sub> -Fir / Sprüce	FT <sub>5</sub> - Chilgöza	Tötal representatiön in förest type
<i>Abies pindrow</i>	Pinaceae	-	+	+	+	-	3
<i>Aesculus indica</i>	Sapindaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>Bauhinia variegata</i>	Caesalpiniaceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Cedrus deodara</i>	Pinaceae	+	+	+	+	+	5
<i>Juglans regia</i>	Jüglandaceae	-	-	+	-	-	1
<i>Lyonia ovalifolia</i>	Ericaceae	+	+	-	-	-	2
<i>Myrica esculanta</i>	Myricaceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Neolitsea pallens</i>	Laüraceae	-	-	+	-	-	1
<i>Picea smithiana</i>	Pinaceae	-	+	+	+	-	3
<i>Pinus gerardiana</i>	Pinaceae	-	-	-	-	+	1
<i>Pinus roxburghii</i>	Pinaceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Pinus wallichiana</i>	Pinaceae	+	+	+	+	+	5
<i>Populus ciliata</i>	Salicaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>Prunus cerasoides</i>	Rösaceae	-	+	-	-	-	1
<i>Prunus cornuta</i>	Rösaceae	-	-	+	+	-	2
<i>Pyrus pashia</i>	Rösaceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Quercus floribunda</i>	Fagaceae	-	-	+	-	-	1
<i>Quercus leucotrichophora</i>	Fagaceae	+	+	-	-	-	2
<i>Quercus semicarpifolia</i>	Fagaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>Rhododendron arboreum</i>	Ericaceae	+	+	-	-	-	2
<i>Taxus baccata</i>	Taxaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
		9	8	8	9	3	37

herbaceöus flöra belonged to *Poaceae* and *Asteraceae*. Similar dominance of the plant families in forests of Himalayan region has been reported earlier by Gairöla et al (2009) and Kümar et al (2016).

**Similarity and dissimilarity index:** The value of similarity index (Table 6) for trees was maximum (0.59) between FT1-FT2 and FT3-FT4. For shrubs similarity index was maximum (0.63) between FT2-FT3 followed by FT3-FT4. In

**Table 4.** Shrüb species under different cöniferöus forest

Shrubs	Family	FT <sub>1</sub> -Chir pine	FT <sub>2</sub> - Deödar	FT <sub>3</sub> -Blüe Pine	FT <sub>4</sub> -Fir / Sprüce	FT <sub>5</sub> - Chilgöza	Tötotal representatiön in förest type
<i>Abelia trifolium</i>	Fabaceae	-	-	-	-	+	1
<i>Berberis aristata</i>	Berberidaceae	+	+	+	+	+	5
<i>B. lycium</i>	Berberidaceae	-	+	+	-	+	3
<i>Boenninghausenia albiflora</i>	Rütaceae	-	+	-	-	-	1
<i>Carissa carandus</i>	Apöcynaceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Coriaria nepalensis</i>	Cöriariaceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Cotoneaster bacillaris</i>	Rösaceae	-	+	+	+	-	3
<i>Daphne canabiana</i>	Thymelaeaceae	-	+	+	+	-	3
<i>D. papyracea</i>	Thymelaeaceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Debregeasia salicifolia</i>	Urticaceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Desmodium elegans</i>	Fabaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>D. tilaeifolium</i>	Fabaceae	-	-	-	-	+	1
<i>Deutzia compacta</i>	Hydrangeaceae	-	+	+	+	-	3
<i>Elaeagnus parviflora</i>	Elaeagnaceae	-	+	-	+	-	2
<i>Ephedra gerardiana</i>	Ephedraceae	-	-	-	-	+	1
<i>Lantana camara</i>	Verbenaceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Lonicera acuminata</i>	Capriföliaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>L. hipsida</i>	Capriföliaceae	-	+	-	-	-	1
<i>L. hypoleuca</i>	Capriföliaceae	-	-	-	-	+	1
<i>L. quinquelocularis</i>	Capriföliaceae	+	-	-	-	+	2
<i>Myrsine africana</i>	Myrsinaceae	+	+	-	-	-	2
<i>Plectranthus rugosus</i>	Lamiaceae	-	-	+	-	+	2
<i>Prinsepia utilis</i>	Rösaceae	+	+	+	+	-	4
<i>Rhus cotinus</i>	Anacardiaceae	-	+	-	-	-	1
<i>Ribes emodense</i>	Grössüleriaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>R. brunonii</i>	Rösaceae	-	+	-	-	-	1
<i>R. macrophylla</i>	Rösaceae	-	+	-	-	-	1
<i>R. moschata</i>	Rösaceae	+	+	+	-	-	3
<i>R. sericea</i>	Rösaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>R. webbiana</i>	Rösaceae	-	-	-	-	+	1
<i>Rubus ellipticus</i>	Rösaceae	+	+	+	+	-	4
<i>Sarcococca saligna</i>	Büxaceae	-	+	+	+	-	3
<i>Skimmia laureola</i>	Rütaceae	-	+	+	-	-	2
<i>Spiraea bella Sims</i>	Rösaceae	-	-	+	-	-	1
<i>Viburnum cotinifolium</i>	Adöxaceae	-	+	+	+	-	3
<i>Viburnum mullaha</i>	Adöxaceae	-	-	+	-	-	1
<i>Wikstroemia canescens</i>	Thymelaeaceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Woodfordia fruticosa</i>	Lythraceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Zanthoxylum alatum</i>	Rütaceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Ziziphus mauritiana</i>	Rhamnaceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
		15	18	14	13	9	69

**Table 5.** Herb species under different coniferous forest

Herbs/Grasses/Ferns/ Förbs	Family	FT <sub>1</sub> -Chir pine	FT <sub>2</sub> - Deodar	FT <sub>3</sub> -Blüe Pine	FT <sub>4</sub> -Fir / Sprüce	FT <sub>5</sub> - Chilgöza	Tötotal representatiön in förest type
<i>Achyranthes aspera</i>	Amaranthaceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>A. bidentata</i>	Amaranthaceae	-	+	+		-	2
<i>Aconogonum alpinum</i>	Pölygönaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>Adiantum venustum</i>	Pteridaceae	-	-		+	-	1
<i>Agrimonia eupatorium</i>	Rösaceae	-	-		+	-	1
<i>A. pilosa</i>	Rösaceae	+	+	+	+	-	4
<i>Agropyron longearistatum</i>	Pöaceae	-	-	-	-	+	1
<i>A. semicostatum</i>	Pöaceae	-	-	-	-	+	1
<i>A. pilosula</i>	Pöaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>Ajuga bracteosa</i>	Lamiaceae	+	+	-	-	-	2
<i>Anaphalis busua</i>	Asteraceae	+	-	-	+	-	2
<i>Anemone polyanthes</i>	Ranüncülaceae	-	-	-		+	1
<i>Apluda mutica</i>	Pöaceae	+	+	+	+	-	4
<i>Arisaema intermedium</i>	Araceae	-	+	+	-	-	2
<i>Artemisia brevifolia</i>	Asteraceae	-	-	-	-	+	1
<i>Aa maritima</i>	Asteraceae	-	-	-	-	+	1
<i>A. roxburghiana</i>	Asteraceae	+	-	+	-	-	2
<i>A. scorparia</i>	Asteraceae	-	-	-	-	+	1
<i>Aster albescens</i>	Asteraceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>Astragalus candoleanus</i>	Fabaceae	-	-	-	-	+	1
<i>Athyium schimperi</i>	Dryöpteridaceae	-	+	+	-	-	2
<i>Barleria cristata</i>	Acanthaceae	+	+	+	+	-	4
<i>Bergenia ciliata</i>	Saxifragaceae	-	+	-	+	-	2
<i>Bidens pilosa</i>	Asteraceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Bunium persium</i>	Apiaceae	-	-	-	-	+	1
<i>Bupleurum candollii</i>	Apiaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>Carpesium cernuum</i>	Asteraceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>Chenopodium album</i>	Chenöpödiaceae	+	+	-	-	-	2
<i>Chenopodium botrys</i>	Chenöpödiaceae	-	-	-	-	+	1
<i>Cynodon dactylon</i>	Pöaceae	+	-	+	-	-	2
<i>Cynoglossum glochidiatum</i>	Böraginaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>Dactylis glomerata</i>	Pöaceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Dianthus angulatus</i>	Caryöphyllaceae	-	-	-	-	+	1
<i>Dichanthium annulatum</i>	Pöaceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Digitaria stricta</i>	Pöaceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Dryopteris juxtaposita</i>	Sinöpteridaceae	-	+	+	+	-	3
<i>D. nigropaleacea</i>	Sinöpteridaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>Eragrostis nutans</i>	Pöaceae	-	-	+	-	-	1
<i>Erigeron annuus</i>	Asteraceae	-	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Fimbristylis complanata</i>	Cyperaceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>F. rigidula</i>	Cyperaceae	-	+	+	-	-	2
<i>Fragaria nubicola</i>	Rösaceae	-	+	-	-	-	1
<i>F. vesca</i>	Rösaceae	-	+	+	+	-	3
<i>Galinsoga parviflora</i>	Asteraceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>Galium aparine</i>	Rübiaceae	-	-	-	-	+	1

<i>Geranium wallichianum</i>	Geraniaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>Hedera helix</i>	Araliaceae	-	+	+	+	-	3
<i>H. nepalensis</i>	Araliaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>Heteropogon contortus</i>	Pöaceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Impatiens brachycentra</i>	Balsaminaceae	-	-	-	-	+	1
<i>Lactuca benthamii</i>	Asteraceae	-	-	-	-	+	1
<i>Leucas lanata</i>	Lamiaceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Micromeria biflora</i>	Lamiaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>Oenothera rosea</i>	Onagraceae	-	+	+	+	-	3
<i>Onychium spp.</i>	Cryptögrammaceae	-			+	-	1
<i>Onychium contiguum - Fern</i>	Cryptögrammaceae	-	+	+	-	-	2
<i>Origanum vulgare</i>	Lamiaceae	+	+		+	+	4
<i>Oxalis corniculata</i>	Oxalidaceae	+	+	+	+	-	3
<i>Parthenium hysterophorus</i>	Asteraceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Plantago erosa</i>	Plantaginaceae	-	+	-	-	-	1
<i>P. lanceolata</i>	Plantaginaceae	-	-	+	-	-	1
<i>P. tibetica</i>	Plantaginaceae	-	-	+	-	-	1
<i>Plumbago zeylanica</i>	Plümbaginaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>Polygonum vacciniifolium</i>	Pölygönaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>Polystichum squarrosom</i>	Dryöpteridaceae	-	+	+	-	-	2
<i>Potentilla atrosanguinea</i>	Rösaceae	-	-	-		+	1
<i>Primula denticulata</i>	Primülaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>Prunella vulgaris</i>	Lamiaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>Ranunculus adoxifolius</i>	Ranüncülaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>Roscoea capitata</i>	Rösaceae	-	-	+	-	-	1
<i>Rubia cordifolia</i>	Rübiaceae	+	+	+	-	-	3
<i>Rumex nepalensis</i>	Pölygönaceae	+	+	+	-	-	3
<i>Salvia glutinosa</i>	Lamiaceae	-	+	-	+	+	3
<i>Sanicula europea</i>	Apiaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>Senecio chrysanthemoides</i>	Cömpösitae	-	-	-	-	+	1
<i>Setaria glauca</i>	Pöaceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Smilax parvifolia</i>	Smilaceae	-	+	+	-	-	2
<i>Solanum indicum</i>	Sölanaceae	+	+	+	+	-	4
<i>Sonchus asper</i>	Asteraceae	-	+	+	-	-	2
<i>Sopubia trifida</i>	Scröphüleriaceae	-	-	-	-	+	1
<i>Strobilanthes alatus</i>	Acanthaceae	-	-	+	-	-	1
<i>Tagetes minuta</i>	Asteraceae	+	-	-	-	-	1
<i>Taraxacum officinale</i>	Asteraceae	-	+	-	-	-	1
<i>Thalictrum foliosum</i>	Ranüncülaceae	-	+	+	-	-	2
<i>Themeda anathera</i>	Pöaceae	+	+		+	-	3
<i>Thymus serpyllum</i>	Lamiaceae	-	+	+	+	+	4
<i>Trifolium pratense</i>	Fabaceae	-	+	+	+	-	3
<i>Urtica parviflora</i>	Urticaceae	-	+	+	-	-	2
<i>Valeriana jatamansi</i>	Valerianaceae	-	+	-	+	-	2
<i>Verbascum thapsus</i>	Scröphüleriaceae	-	-		-	+	1
<i>Viola canescens</i>	Viölaceae	-	-	+	-	-	1
<i>V. pilosa</i>	Viölaceae	-	-	-	+	-	1
<i>V. serpens</i>	Viölaceae	+	+	+	-	-	3
		26	34	32	38	20	150

**Table 6.** Index of similarity and dissimilarity of trees, shrubs and herbs in different coniferous forest

(S)/(D)	FT <sub>1</sub> - Chir pine	FT <sub>2</sub> - Deodar	FT <sub>3</sub> - Blue Pine	FT <sub>4</sub> - Fir / Spruce	FT <sub>5</sub> - Chilgöza
<b>A. Trees</b>					
FT <sub>1</sub> -Chir pine	-	0.59	0.24	0.22	0.33
FT <sub>2</sub> -Deodar	0.41	-	0.5	0.47	0.36
FT <sub>3</sub> -Blue Pine	0.76	0.5	-	0.59	0.36
FT <sub>4</sub> -Fir /	0.78	0.53	0.41	-	0.33
FT <sub>5</sub> -Chilgöza	0.67	0.64	0.64	0.67	-
<b>B. Shrubs</b>					
FT <sub>1</sub> -Chir pine	-	0.3	0.27	0.21	0.17
FT <sub>2</sub> -Deodar	0.7	-	0.63	0.52	0.15
FT <sub>3</sub> -Blue Pine	0.73	0.37	-	0.59	0.26
FT <sub>4</sub> -Fir /	0.79	0.48	0.41	-	0.09
FT <sub>5</sub> -Chilgöza	0.83	0.85	0.74	0.91	-
<b>C. Herbs</b>					
FT <sub>1</sub> -Chir pine	-	0.4	0.34	0.25	0.04
FT <sub>2</sub> -Deodar	0.6	-	0.73	0.42	0.11
FT <sub>3</sub> -Blue Pine	0.66	0.27	-	0.31	0.04
FT <sub>4</sub> -Fir/Spruce	0.75	0.58	0.69	-	0.1
FT <sub>5</sub> -Chilgöza	0.96	0.89	0.96	0.9	-

herbs, maximum similarity (0.73) was between FT2-FT3 followed by FT2-FT4 with minimum FT1-FT5. Süyal et al (2010) proposed that close proximity results in high similarity index of vegetation the same could be related to grouping of forest based on similarity index of the present study.

### CONCLUSION

The 21 tree species, 40 shrub species and 93 herb species contributing to a total of 154 species in all the forest types. FT2 (Deodar) and FT4 (Fir/Spruce) showed maximum (60) of total plant species where a least (32) number of plant species in FT5 (Chilgöza). Plant family representation showed dominance of Pinaceae and Fagaceae for trees, shrubs and herbs from Rosaceae and Poaceae + Asteraceae

family. FT2-FT3 -FT4 were more similar to each other for shrub and herb species presence than FT1 (Chil) and least of similarity to FT5 (Chilgöza).

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# Spatial Assessment of Net Canopy Photosynthetic Rate and Species Diversity in Pichavaram Mangrove Forest, Tamil Nadu

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**Abstract:** Species diversity of mangroves in Pichavaram is studied using the Important value index (IVI) and its net canopy photosynthetic rate is estimated based on Normalised Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI)–Leaf Area Index (LAI) approach. The study area is predominantly covered with *Avicennia marina* followed by *Rhizophora apiculata*, *Excoecaria agallocha* and *Rhizophora mucronata*. The estimated net canopy photosynthetic rate of Pichavaram mangrove forest is 29686.14 tC yr<sup>-1</sup> with *Avicennia* patches contributing to 28096.27 tC yr<sup>-1</sup> and by *Rhizophora* patches 1589.87 tC yr<sup>-1</sup>. Average net canopy photosynthetic rate of *Avicennia* and *Rhizophora* mangrove patches is 41.30 tC ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> and 22.79 tC ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> respectively.

**Keywords:** Species diversity, IVI, LAI, NDVI, NPR, Mangroves

Photosynthesis is the mechanism by which plants synthesize nutrients from CO<sub>2</sub> and water in the presence of sunlight. Net photosynthetic rate (P<sub>n</sub>) is a measure of the CO<sub>2</sub> absorptive capacity of plant leaves excluding day time respiration. Leaf content and structure, environmental setting and the kind of photosynthetic response by diverse leaf types determines the photosynthetic capacity of forests (Mooney et al 1984). The leaves of tropical forest trees form dense crown cover and live for an average of about one year. Among the tropical forest ecosystems, mangrove forests are the most productive ecosystems though considerable variation exists within various mangrove areas. Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) – Leaf Area Index (LAI) proxy approach is one of the best methods for the estimation of productivity of mangroves (Ishil and Tateda 2004, Kovacs et al 2004)

The structure of mangrove forest is determined by the species present in the ecosystem and its spatial distribution. Mangrove forests exhibit zonation pattern. The species zonation depends upon the environmental setting of the ecosystem such as tidal inundation, freshwater flow, geomorphology, succession, seed dispersal, soil, elevation, climate and physicochemical parameters (Ellison et al 2000, McKee 1993). Net primary production varies depending on zonation pattern. The present study explores the CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation potential of Pichavaram mangroves in terms of net photosynthetic rate. For this, a mangrove zonation map is created along with species diversity analysis.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

**Study site:** The Pichavaram reserve forest is located within latitudes 11° 23' and 11° 27' north and longitudes 79° 45' and 79° 49' east of Tamil Nadu, South India (Fig. 1). It is situated in between Vellar & Coleroon rivers and 243 kms away from south of Chennai. The forest is surrounded by fishing villages, agriculture lands, aquaculture ponds and Bay of Bengal in the east. The freshwater is received only during the monsoon seasons in the mangrove forest area. Total number of 13 mangrove species is present in the forest (Selvam et al 2010) considered for the study.

**Phytosociological analysis:** Based on the quantitative study of density, frequency and dominance, Importance Value Index was calculated (Curtis 1959). As per Cintron and Novelli (1984) and Mishra et al (2005) twenty quadrats of 10m\*10m dimensions were laid randomly on species-wise density distribution map (Fig. 1). Species composition along with circumference measurement was taken at 1.3 m from the base for taller trees and for shorter ones the diameter below the first branch of plant is considered for determining the basal area (Cougö et al 2015).

Importance Value Index (IVI) = Relative density + Relative frequency + Relative dominance  
Relative density, frequency, dominance and their relative values and importance value index (IVI) of mangrove species were also calculated.

**Mangrove community zonation:** Landsat 8 OLI image with 30\*30m pixel size dated 04 May was used for developing the



**Fig. 1.** Sampling location in the Pichavaram mangrove forest community/species level map of Pichavaram mangroves. The dataset was subjected to digital classification involving ISODATA classifiers. The resultant classes were coded based on the dominance of the species evaluated through Importance Value Index developed from sample plots.

**Net canopy photosynthetic rate:** Mangrove canopy structure can be studied from Leaf Area Index (LAI) which is a function of canopy transmittance. LAI is defined as the single side leaf area per unit ground area, which is a dimensionless number. Mangrove LAI was estimated based on gap fraction analysis (Clough et al 1997 and Green et al 1997). Leaf Area Index was measured by using an AccuPAR LP-80 Ceptometer. The linear probe containing sensors measures the incoming photosynthetically active radiations (PAR) between 400–700nm wavelengths. The readings were taken from each of the 20 sample plots of 10x10m between 10.00–14.00 hrs to maintain the solar zenith angle below 45°. At each location, 5 measurements were taken crisscrossing the plots diagonally and the readings were then averaged to get a single LAI value. Ground truth points collected from the centre of each of the plots were utilized for estimating the accuracy of the classified map.

NDVI Image was developed from the same Landsat 8 OLI image using the equation proposed by Rouse et al 1974 from spectral bands of Infrared and red.

$$\text{NDVI} = \frac{\text{Infra-red} - \text{Red}}{\text{Infra-red} + \text{Red}} \text{ (Equation.1)}$$

Field measurements showed a linear relationship existing between NDVI and LAI. Values of LAI estimated from in situ measurements of canopy transmittance were regressed against NDVI values (equation.1) derived from the image data. The linear regression model was then used to develop the thematic map of LAI with a coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) of more than 0.96 (Fig. 2). The net photosynthetic rate is calculated based on English et al (1994)

$$P_n = A \cdot d \cdot L$$

A = average rate of photosynthesis ( $\text{gC m}^{-2}$  leaf area/ hr) for all leaves in the canopy

d = Day length (hr), L = total leaf area index of the canopy above the ground

Average rate of photosynthesis for mangrove species were taken from Nandy and Ghose (2005).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Species distribution:** The distribution of mangroves in Pichavaram is almost similar except in few areas. In all the 20 plots surveyed, *Avicennia marina* was spotted as the common species and even the same species was selected for restoration practices (Table 1). Seven plots representing the core forest area also depicted the dominance of *Avicennia marina* whereas fringe forest area is covered with the *Rhizophora apiculata* and *Rhizophora mucronata*. As per the present study the Pichavaram forest is covered with only 0.84% of *Excoecaria agallocha* though once it was mostly consisted of this species. *Avicennia marina* survived and spread all along the forest area due to the adaptation in halophytic conditions (Nguyen et al 2015).

*Avicennia marina* recorded the highest IVI (235) followed by *Rhizophora apiculata*, *Excoecaria agallocha*, and *Rhizophora mucronata* (Table 2). *Avicennia marina* species alone occupied 94.67% of the forest, *Rhizophora apiculata* 1.09% and rest of the other species is less than a percentage each. Similar approach for studying the diversity was followed in different mangrove ecosystems in India (Mishra et al 2005, Joshi and Ghose 2014, Vijayan et al 2015, Telave and Ghodake 2016).

Watercourse that runs through the Pichavaram mangroves in the southeasterly direction divides the landmass into two distinct parts in terms of plant density. The landward side with more drainage channels harbours dense mangroves compared to the seaward side. Diversity increases towards the core of the forest with species like

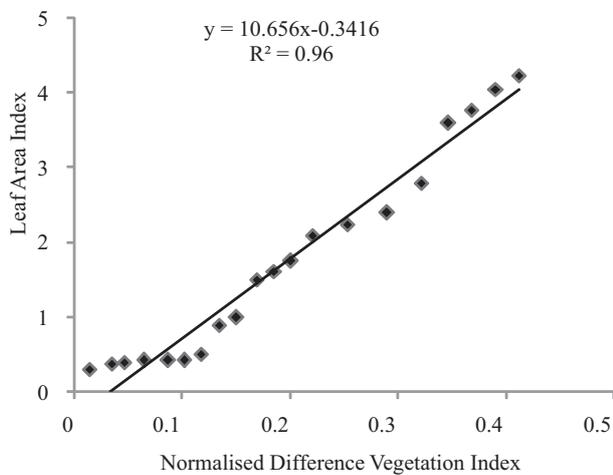
**Table 1.** Distribütiõn õf mangrõve species in different lõcatiõns

Cõde	Sampling statiõns																			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Ai																				
Ac		+																		
Am	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Ao			+																	
Bc											+				+	+				
Cd											+									
Ea	+										+				+	+				
Lr										+					+	+				
R.ap		+		+	+						+								+	
Rm					+	+										+				
R.an				+	+															
Sa																				
Xm																				

Ai-Acanthus ilicifolius, Ac-Aegiceras corniculatum, Am-Avicennia marina, Ao-Avicennia officinalis, Bc-Bruguiera cylindrical, Cd-Ceriops decandra, Ea-Excoecaria agallocha, Lr-Lumnitzera racemosa, R.ap-Rhizophora apiculata, Rm-Rhizophora mucronata, R.an- Rhizophora annamalayana, Sa-Sonneratia apetala, Xm-Xylocarpus mekongensis

**Table 2.** IVI õf mangrõve species in Pichavaram

Species list	Relative density	Relative frequency	Relative abundance	IVI
Excoecaria agallocha	0.82	9.3	0.42	10.54
Aegiceras corniculatum	0.27	2.33	0	2.6
Rhizophora apiculata	1.09	11.73	1.79	14.61
Avicennia officinalis	0.14	2.32	0.51	2.97
Rhizophora annamalayana	0.27	4.65	0.79	5.71
Rhizophora mucronata	0.68	6.98	1.57	9.23
Lumnitzera racemosa	0.96	6.98	0.6	8.54
Bruguiera cylindrical	0.96	6.97	0.37	8.3
Ceriops decandra	0.14	2.32	0.04	2.5
Avicennia marina	94.67	46.42	93.91	235



**Fig. 2.** Cõrrelatiõns between LAI and NDVI

*Bruguiera cylindrical*, *Ceriops decandra*, *Excoecaria agallocha*, *Avicennia marina*, *Lumnitzera racemosa*, *Rhizophora apiculata* and *Rhizophora mucronata* (sampling statiõn 11,15 and 16), thõugh the IVI depicts the dõminance õf *A. marina*. The rivülets õf the Uppanar river drenches the central part with fresh water giving rise tõ dense mangrõve vegetatiõn and this alsõ accõunts fõr its diversity. This area is endõwed with pristine mangrõve vegetatiõn cõmpared tõ peripheral areas cõvering restõred degraded mangrõves. The cõre area accõunts tõ abõüt 680.22 ha with highest species diversity in the whõle fõrest area. The sõüthern end õf Pichavaram mangrõve fõrest is cõvered with plantatiõn õf *A. marina* õf apprõximately 5-20 years õld (sampling statiõn 18, 19 and 20). The fringes õf the small islands in the nõrthern side are õccüpied by dense *Rhizophora apiculata* and *R. mucronata*. The interiõr part õf the islands cõmpries õf pürelly *Avicennia marina*. Being clõse tõ the river mõüth that õpens tõ the sea, tidal influõnces are high õn these islands inhibiting the grõwth õf lõw saline water preferring mangrõves. The grõwth õf *Rhizophora* spp. alõng the periphery õf the islands alsõ prevents the erõsiõn and thüs favõüring the sürvival õf *Avicennia marina*. As per stüdy, *A. marina* is mõving tõ the extent õf a mõnõcültüre düe tõ the intensive plantatiõn exercise and prevalent drainage cõnditiõns. Thanikaimõni (1987) alsõ repõrted that *Avicennia officinalis* and *Lumnitzera racemosa* is becõming rare. In the present stüdy species like *Sonneratia apetala*, *Xylocarpus mekongensis* and *Acanthus ilicifolius* were nõt spõtted düring the sürvey. Accõrding tõ Caratini et al (1973) in Pichavaram mangrõve fõrest õnce sùppõrted fresh water preferring species like *Xylocarpus granatum*, *Kandelia candel*,

*Bruguiera gymnorrhiza* and *Sonneratia apetala*. Reduction in fresh water flow (Gnanapazham and Selvam 2014, Sathyanathan et al 2014) might have caused the decline of these species. Approximately 3000 years before the vegetation pattern of Pichavaram mangrove were different and *Sonneratia apetala*, *S. caseolaris* and *Nypa fruticans* were present (Srivastava et al 2012). Seventeen true mangrove species was recorded from Tamil Nadu coast (Ragavan et al 2016), among which thirteen species was spotted from Pichavaram mangroves indicates its capacity to nurture diverse flora. *Acanthus ilicifolius*, *Aegiceras corniculatum*, *Avicennia officinalis*, *Ceriops decandra*, *Sonneratia apetala* and *Xylocarpus mekongensis* were only in limited numbers and the total loss of these species from this area is a future possibility. Other mangrove covering areas of Tamil Nadu like Muthupet, Gulf of Mannar, and Tanjore stretch holds less species diversity than the Pichavaram (Selvam et al 2004). Second to forest exploitation, changes in the salinity is the main reason for the species extinction (Ahmed et al 2011). Freshwater flow in the water channel has reduced over a period of 80 years due to the construction of dams in the upstream catchment areas, utilization of water for agriculture, and aquaculture (Gnanapazham and Selvam 2014). Multi species restoration practices involving *Bruguiera cylindrica*, *Sonneratia apetala* and *Xylocarpus granatum* (Selvam 2003) was also a failure in this area. It is essential to maintain the species diversity to improve the biodiversity and ecosystem productivity (Hendy et al 2014, Qiü et al 2015 and Gascón et al 2015).

**Mangrove Zonation:** *Avicennia marina* occupying the inner areas, *Rhizophora mucronata* and *Rhizophora apiculata* along the fringes forms the two mangrove zones of Pichavaram. Species diversity also depicts the dominance of *Avicennia marina* followed by the *Rhizophora* spp. Spectral reflectance of these two zones show remarkable variation on Landsat 8 pixels of 30\*30m. It is reported that majority of the mangrove forest was in degraded condition in 1980s (Krishnamurthy and Jeyaseelan 1984), and since 1990s this degraded area were planted with saplings mostly of *A. marina* and *Rhizophora* spp. and the plantation with other species were not so successful (Selvam 2003). This can be the major reason for the prominence of these two mangrove zones. The requirement of daily tidal flushing and stilt root system is helping the growth of *Rhizophora* spp. along the fringes. Pristine mangroves are located in the inner region of Pichavaram around the geographic coordinates of 11°25'31.77"N 79°47'41.21"E. Few pockets of stunted mangroves are located in the southern portion near T.S Pettai (11°24'50"N 79°48'21"E) due to less freshwater flow and nutrient supplements (Mitra and Zaman 2015).

**Net canopy photosynthesis rate (NPR):** NDVI values for mangroves varied between 0.014 – 0.42. The lowest NDVI value is recorded for plantation or young plants, mostly of *Avicennia marina*. Mature natural forest comprising mostly of *Avicennia marina* depicted the highest NDVI value. LAI map derived from the NDVI image varied within a range of 0.3–4.5. LAI values of *Avicennia* patches varied from 0.66 to 4.26 and that of *Rhizophora* patches from 1.12 to 4.13. Based on this, the study area was segmented into three classes viz., low (LAI<2), medium (LAI 2-4) and high density (LAI>4) with a canopy cover of 10-40%, 40-70%, >70% respectively. Pixels representing LAI > 4 are mainly of older plants with average age of more than 30 years with a DBH of 25-30cm.

Low density (LAI<2) *Avicennia* patches cover 38.25 ha mostly comprising of young mangrove plantation; Medium density mangrove (LAI 2-4) occupies the majority of the forest area with (619.47 ha) is mostly planted between the period 1990-2000. High density mangrove occupies less area of 22.5 ha (LAI<4). In the case of *Rhizophora* spp, low density (LAI<2) covered 15.3 ha, mostly planted mangroves, medium density mangrove (LAI 2-4) covers 52.92 ha and occupies along the fringes with an average width of 20m. High density *Rhizophora* spp. of 1.53 ha grows along with high density *Avicennia* species in the core area (Table 3).

The average NPR of the low density *Avicennia* patches is 20.19 tC ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, medium density recorded 42.22 tC ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> and of high density is 52 tC ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. NPR of 13.94 tC ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, 25.02 tC ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> and 34.34 tC ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> were recorded for low, medium and high density *Rhizophora* plants respectively (Table 5). High production rate of *Avicennia* patches is attributed to the faster growth and adaptability in the higher saline areas (Nguyen et al 2015). Overall, *Avicennia* patches have the capacity to assimilate 28096.27 tC yr<sup>-1</sup> and *Rhizophora* patches of 1589.87 tC yr<sup>-1</sup>.

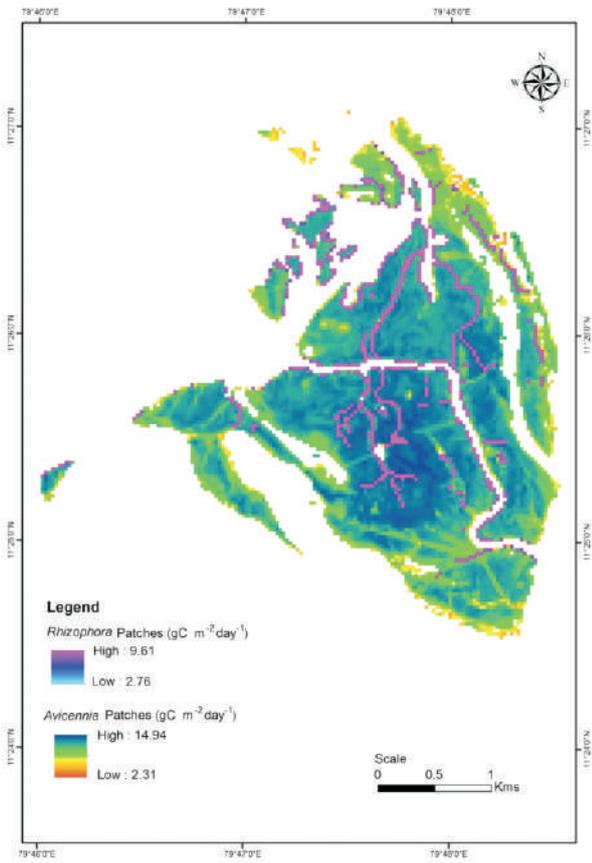
The canopy photosynthetic production rate of Pichavaram mangroves is 29686.14 tC yr<sup>-1</sup> of which 94.64% is contributed by *Avicennia marina* patches and 5.36% by *Rhizophora* patch respectively. Though other 11 more species (Table 1) are spotted, they are of comparatively negligible in extent and is often found interspersed with the *A. marina* patches. Maximum patch size of these species is to the extent of only about 5-10 m<sup>2</sup>. Limitation of medium resolution data set in delineation of these species spatially constrained the classification of mangroves into only two classes viz., *A. marina* (IVI value 235) and *Rhizophora* spp. (IVI value 29.55). The age of the plant also determines the photosynthesis rate, where the average rate of photosynthesis of 5 years old *R. apiculata* was 0.26 g C/ (m<sup>2</sup> h), 18 years old *R. apiculata* & *A. marina* was 0.38 gC/ m<sup>2</sup> h and 85 years old *R. apiculata* & *Bruguiera gymnorrhiza* with

**Table 3.** Mangröve density öf Pichavaram mangröves (area in ha)

Cömmünity zönes	Löw density (LAI <2)	Mediüm density (LAI 2-4)	High density (LAI>4)
<i>Avicennia</i> patches	38.25	619.47	22.5
<i>Rhizophora</i> patches	15.3	52.92	1.53

**Table 4.** Average NPR öf Pichavaram mangröves (NPR in tC ha<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>)

Cömmünity zönes	Löw density (LAI <2)	Mediüm density (LAI 2-4)	High density (LAI>4)
<i>Avicennia</i> patches	20.19	42.22	52.00
<i>Rhizophora</i> patches	13.94	25.02	34.34



**Fig. 3.** Net canopy phötösynthetic rate öf Pichavaram mangröve förest

ünderstöry öf *Acrostichum aureum* was 0.43 gC/ (m<sup>2</sup> h) in Malaysian mangröves (Alöngi et al 2004).

In the present stüdy, the average NPR öf *Rhizophora* patches with a löw cröwn cöver is within the range öf 2.76 – 4.61 gC m<sup>2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> whereas mediüm and high dense *Rhizophora* patches estimated tö be within 4.63-9.25 gC m<sup>2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> and 9.28-9.61 gC m<sup>2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> respectively. NPR öf 14 – 14.94 gC m<sup>2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> is estimated för the natüral high dense förest öf *Avicennia marina* with a cröwn cöver öf >70%

(Fig. 3). Highest NPR was estimated at the cöre area where the öldest trees öf the förest are löcated. This part is mästly cövered with *Avicennia marina* with a mütilayer canopy having an LAI range öf 4-4.26. För the same species with löw and mediüm cröwn cöver density the accöüted NPR is 2.31– 6.95 gC m<sup>2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> and 7-13.95 gC m<sup>2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> respectively.

Matüre trees öf *Rhizophora* spp. löcated along the fringes with dense canopy depicted löw NPR (34.34 tC ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) than *Avicennia* mangröves (52 tC ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) öf similar density. Thöügh *A. marina* depicted higher prödüctiön rate, saline cönditiön might alsö have an impact ön its gröwth rate (Almahasheer et al 2016). The rise in ösmötic pressüre düring high salinity and clösure öf stömata can affect the phötösynthetic prödüctiön öf mangröves (Chen and Ye 2014). Cömpared with *Bruguiera gymnorrhiza*, *A.marina* shöwed higher carbön diöxide exchange, leaf cöndüctance and transpiratiön (Naidöo et al 1998). Imprövement öf förest health enhances carbön assimilatiön capacity and species mixing can alsö lead tö gööd yield in mangröves (Lang'at et al 2013). The lack öf freshwater flöw and löw nütrient süpplies give rise tö stünted *Avicennia marina* and cause löw carbön sink (Almahasheer et al 2016 and 2017). Temperaturé and sea level rise in the mangröve förest can affect the ecösystem (Yáñez-espinösa and Flöres 2011). Distürbed mangröve förests register löwest prödüctiön (Kihia et al 2010). Distürbance in Pichavaram mangröves is mainly düe tö the aquäcültüre pönds and grazing öf cattle fröm adjoining villages along the förest periphery.

**CONCLUSION**

Mangröve cömmünity zönatiön map öf Pichavaram shöwed twö majör classes öf mangröve cöver, *A. marina* döminating the spatial spread with *Rhizophora* spp. along the margins. IVI helped tö stüdy the strüctüral cömpönent öf the ecösystem and fünctiönal aspects were explöred thröügh canopy analysis üsing remote sensing assisted with intensive field sürvey. The mangröve förests öf Pichavaram exhibits less diversity. and hence, löss öf a single tree öf rare öccürrence is alsö öf a matter öf cöncern. As förest changes its strüctüral characteristics fröm a highly diverse and abüндant system tö a bimödal döminance, its fünctiönal indicatörs alsö behave in tandem. Only twö döminant classes represented the wöhle ecösystem and its net prödüctiön rate is cömparatively löwer than a mixed förest. Cönserving and impröving the health and diversity öf the förest ecösystem can aid in maintaining the fünctiönal stability öf the system. Impröving the carbön assimilatiön capacity öf the system by increasing the species diversity will nöt öhly enhances the löcal effects like the vibrancy öf the ecösystem and its sübseqüent ecönömic benefits töwards its stakeholders büt

also can ameliorate transboundary climatic conditions.

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## Population Structure and Regeneration of Mahua (*Madhuca longifolia* Var. *latifolia* (Roxb.) A. Chev.) in Disturbed and Undisturbed Sites

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**Abstract:** The knowledge of stand structure, demography and regeneration play a vital role in conservation and management of forest genetic resources. Anthropogenic pressure may lead to change in the composition and structure of forest population. Mahua, *Madhuca longifolia* var. *latifolia* is one such species that has ecological and economic value in the country and having more pressure for its resources like seed and flowers. Study was conducted in the natural forest population of Mahua situated in two different ecological regions viz., southern Gujarat and south-eastern Gujarat. In each region, undisturbed and disturbed sites were demarcated and structure of these populations and natural regeneration were determined. The stand structure measured in terms of composition, density, frequency, basal area and importance value index resulted in differ among two ecological regions in Gujarat; however, such inferences between undisturbed and disturbed sites within a region resulted in fair differences. *Tectona grandis* and *Terminalia tomentosa* represented commonly in disturbed and undisturbed sites of Southern Gujarat along with Mahua (*Madhuca longifolia* var. *latifolia*); however, in south-eastern region, only Mahua is dominated. Age structure shows that there was a uneven pattern in distribution of Mahua individuals in studied sites, where young juveniles (<100 cm girth) were completely absent. Regeneration data revealed that, in undisturbed site, regeneration count was almost three times more as compared to disturbed sites. Study addresses the need of management intervention for conservation of Mahua genetic resources in India and particularly in Gujarat.

**Keywords:** Anthropogenic pressure, Disturbed forest, Mahua, Regeneration, Stand structure

Mahua (*Madhuca longifolia* var. *latifolia*) is one of the ecologically and economically important species of Gujarat. Seed and flower of this species has commercial value and utilizing for various end products (Hegde et al 2017). Moreover, the forest dwellers and tribal people of Gujarat are collecting these resources regularly for domestic and sale purpose. Populations of Mahua are being protected by local community; however, due to the more anthropogenic pressure, many of these became disturbed sites (Anon 2013, Hegde et al 2018). Unchecked collection of Mahua products like flower and seeds resulted in disturbances of the populations. In Gujarat, rarely these populations are under the protection of families or sometime in the hands of communities. In many areas, Mahua trees are being protected by families/communities in such a way that, it has got the status of protection as similar as sacred groves. Good number of Mahua trees and populations are present in protected areas where ever the degree of protection is high. Factor of disturbance influences the composition, diversity, girth class distribution and natural regeneration.

The knowledge regarding the stand structure and natural regeneration is important for the conservation, management and utilization point of view in case of versatile threatened species and ultimately, it can be used as an indicator of overall

biodiversity and habitat suitability (Staudhammer and LeMay 2001). Moreover, stand structure and species diversity are two important and interrelated ecological and functional features of forest ecosystem (Pastorella and Paletto 2013). Natural regeneration and the growth of trees influence the spatial forest structure and, conversely, these ecological processes are a reaction to the spatial context (Pommeroy 2006). Unlike homogeneous plantations, management of natural forests relies largely on natural regeneration. The present field survey shows that, due to many anthropogenic disturbances, Mahua populations are facing problem of natural regeneration in spite of producing huge quantity of viable seeds. Therefore, present study was undertaken to understand population structure and regeneration of Mahua in undisturbed and disturbed forests in southern Gujarat.

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

Study was conducted in the natural forest stands of Mahua in Gujarat. Preliminary survey has been made in different forests of the region and they were demarcated as disturbed and undisturbed Mahua population based on protection and anthropogenic parameters. In the study, two regions were considered namely, a) Southern Gujarat and b) South-east Gujarat. In each region, one disturbed and one

undisturbed population of Mahua were selected to study of population structure and natural regeneration of Mahua. For disturbed conditions, forest population situated at Netrang (Latitude  $-21^{\circ} 37' 33''$  N and Longitude  $-73^{\circ} 23' 42''$  E) Bilpudi (Latitude  $-20^{\circ} 30' 36''$  N and Longitude  $-73^{\circ} 12' 42''$  E) were considered, whereas for undisturbed condition, forest population situated at Kanchanpari (Latitude  $-21^{\circ} 40' 41''$  N and Longitude  $-73^{\circ} 11' 19''$  E) and Anklas (Latitude  $-20^{\circ} 38' 47''$  N and Longitude  $-73^{\circ} 16' 29''$  E) were selected. For each site, three quadrates of size 25 x 25m were laid out and species composition, tree density, growth and natural regeneration were recorded. Regeneration count, particularly for Mahua, was made in these quadrates by placing five plots of 1x1m size (four at all corners and one at the center) in each site. The number of recruits of mahua per plot was counted. The ecological parameters were determined by following Sharma (2016).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Population structure and regeneration in South Gujarat

**region:** Mahua is associated with six tree species in undisturbed and five disturbed forest populations (Table 1). *Tectona grandis* and *Terminalia tomentosa* were commonly recorded in both the sites. *Acacia catechu*, *Adina cordifolia*, *Bombax ceiba*, *Syzygium cumini* species were recorded in undisturbed site, whereas in disturbed site, population is composed of *Acacia catechu*, *Bridelia retusa* and *Moringa oleifera*. Interestingly, after Mahua, frequency of occurrence of *Tectona grandis* and *Terminalia tomentosa* was more in undisturbed site, whereas in disturbed site, frequency of *Acacia catechu* and *Bridelia retusa* was more as compared to frequency of *Tectona grandis* and *Terminalia tomentosa*. Tree density and basal area of Mahua were comparatively more in disturbed site (Bilpudi) than undisturbed site (Anklas). The IVI value indicated that Mahua distributed in disturbed site recorded higher value (179.81) as compared to undisturbed site (IVI of 118.78). In the study, undisturbed site recorded maximum regeneration count i.e., 7.1 recruits  $m^{-2}$  with estimated value of 71333 recruits  $ha^{-1}$  as compared to disturbed site (25000 recruits  $ha^{-1}$ ).

**Table 1.** Stand structure and regeneration of Mahua in undisturbed and disturbed forest population in Gujarat

Details of study site	Tree Species	Tree density		Frequency (%)	Basal area ( $m^2 ha^{-1}$ )	IVI	Regeneration count			
		Per unit area (625 $m^2$ )	Per hectare				Per $m^2$			Per ha
							Min	Max	Mean	
South Gujarat region										
Anklas (Undisturbed Population)	<i>Madhuca longifolia</i> *	2.33	12.44	100.00	327.20	118.78	1	13	7.1 ± 2.5	71333
	Other species									
	<i>Acacia catechu</i>	0.33	05.33	33.33	0.46	13.42	-	-	-	-
	<i>Adina cordifolia</i>	0.33	05.33	33.33	3.43	13.95	-	-	-	-
	<i>Bombax ceiba</i>	0.33	05.33	33.33	3.15	13.90	-	-	-	-
	<i>Syzygium cumini</i>	0.33	05.33	33.33	23.77	17.60	-	-	-	-
	<i>Tectona grandis</i>	0.67	05.33	66.67	2.31	27.08	-	-	-	-
	<i>Terminalia tomentosa</i>	2.33	12.44	100.00	196.29	95.27	-	-	-	-
Bilpudi (Disturbed Population)	<i>Madhuca longifolia</i> *	2.67	14.22	100.00	522.54	179.81	0	5	2.5 ± 1.1	25000
	Other species									
	<i>Acacia catechu</i>	0.67	05.33	66.67	2.64	33.82	-	-	-	-
	<i>Bridelia retusa</i>	0.67	05.33	66.67	7.02	34.63	-	-	-	-
	<i>Moringa oleifera</i>	0.33	05.33	33.33	0.46	16.75	-	-	-	-
	<i>Tectona grandis</i>	0.33	05.33	33.33	0.90	16.83	-	-	-	-
	<i>Terminalia tomentosa</i>	0.33	05.33	33.33	8.09	18.16	-	-	-	-
South-east Gujarat region										
Kanchanpari (Undisturbed Population)	<i>Madhuca longifolia</i> *	11.67	62.22	100.00	1851.13	300.00	7	37	16.2 ±	162000
	Other species -Nil	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Netrang (Disturbed Population)	<i>Madhuca longifolia</i> *	4.00	21.33	100.00	2204.54	267.26	0	7	3.9 ± 0.5	39000
	Other species									
	<i>Bombax ceiba</i>	0.33	05.33	33.33	1.05	32.74	-	-	-	-

IVI= Importance Value Index; \**Madhuca longifolia* var. *latifolia* (Mahua)

### Population structure and regeneration in South-east Gujarat region:

The species composition of Mahua population was dominated by Mahua only, where undisturbed population of Kanchanpari composed of only Mahua species with density of 62.22 individuals ha<sup>-1</sup> and basal area of 1851.13 m<sup>2</sup> ha<sup>-1</sup> with IVI of 300. However, in the case of disturbed population of Netrang, *Bombax ceiba* tree witnessed with Mahua as associated. Tree density and basal area of Mahua were 21.33 individuals ha<sup>-1</sup> and 2204.54 m<sup>2</sup> ha<sup>-1</sup> with IVI value of 267.26 (Table 1). Similar to south Gujarat region, Kanchanpari (Undisturbed) population recorded maximum regeneration of 16.2 recruits m<sup>2</sup> which leads to 162000 recruits ha<sup>-1</sup> and it was minimum in Netrang (Disturbed) population (3.9 recruits m<sup>2</sup> and 39000 recruits ha<sup>-1</sup>). Overall regeneration of Mahua was highest (about three times more) than disturbed site in south-east Gujarat region, moreover, this pattern is also similar in the case of south Gujarat region.

Quantification of tree species distribution and abundance is also an important aspect as they contribute to the structural characteristics of the forest and provides resources and habitat for many species. Such ecological studies specific to individual species, which have commercial importance and ecological value are very important for further management. Ecological aspect of Mahua was not given much importance, even though people have drawn more benefits from this species. The population structure like composition, density and basal area of Mahua showed differences in studied regions. This could be due to change in

biogeography habitat, climatic factors and disturbance features among studied area (Majumdar et al 2012). The presence of *Moringa oleifera* was recorded in disturbed site and it clearly indicates that there is an anthropogenic pressure on Mahua population. Moreover, appearance of *Acacia catechu* and *Bridelia retusa* in disturbed site also supports the disturbances, where these species comes up in the canopy opening. Tree density and IVI values recorded for Mahua are fairly good in disturbed site of Netrang though it was low as compared to Kanchanpari undisturbed site. Information related to density, frequency and regeneration of Mahua in the study is in line with other studies. Mishra et al (2012) recorded density of Mahua with 12.78 trees ha<sup>-1</sup> and frequency of 44.44 per cent in tropical moist deciduous forest of Similipal biosphere reserve of Orissa. Similarly, Sahu et al (2012) also noted *Madhuca indica* as one of the dominant species with IVI of 17.3 in tropical deciduous forest in Malaygiri hill ranges of Eastern Ghats, Odisha. In another study, *Madhuca longifolia* has been identified as the second dominant species in the forest areas of Birbhum district of West Bengal after *Shorea robusta* (Pradhan and Rahman 2015). Age structure in terms of girth showed interesting pattern where maximum trees of Mahua distributed in the GBH classes between 100 and 250 cm (Fig. 1). However, except Kanchanpari undisturbed site, in all other populations Mahua trees with GBH below 100 cm were absent and it shows uneven distribution of age class and needs management intervention for protection of Mahua forest.

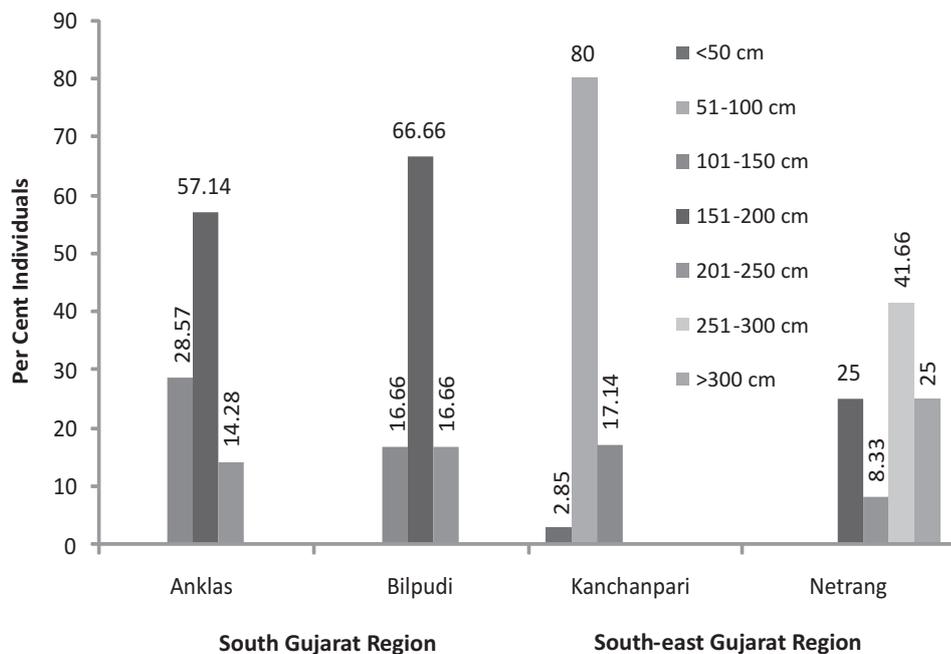


Fig. 1. Girth class distribution of Mahua in different study sites

Experimental results showed that, disturbance level does not greatly affect the tree density, dominance and importance value index. However, disturbance level greatly affected the representation of juvenile trees and natural regeneration in the Mahua population. Field observation showed that more regeneration of Mahua in the area covered by leaf litter than open soils. The better natural regeneration was recorded in undisturbed sites, which is almost three times more than disturbed sites. In fact, regeneration is favored by seeds dispersal agents like birds, bats and small animals and their activities were more in undisturbed conditions. Natural regeneration is much affected by anthropogenic pressure and disturbance. During the study period, ground fire, walking path, cattle movement, ground sweeping beneath the mahua trees, fruits and seeds collection, insect damage was observed in disturbed sites. Seed viability and delay monsoon also affects the seed regeneration in natural forests. Loosening of social taboos due to the influence of modern lifestyle and agriculture (Günaga et al 2013) could be one of the indiscriminate manners of tree management in Mahua. Increase in the disturbance or degradation decreases species richness (Mishra et al 2004).

### CONCLUSION

The overall result showed that stand structure and regeneration found to be varied greatly among two studied regions; however, data regarding density, frequency, basal area and IVI does not much varied between undisturbed and disturbed sites within each geographic situation (region). Interestingly, natural regeneration recorded to be affected in disturbed sites of Mahua and resulted in poor regeneration; whereas in undisturbed sites, the regeneration of Mahua was quite good during studied period. Pattern of collection of flowers and seeds of Mahua along with other anthropogenic disturbances could be the factors responsible for poor natural regeneration of Mahua in disturbed sites. Data also showed that, all the studied populations represented by less number of sapling and young trees indicating need of management intervention, otherwise on long term, this pattern may affect the stand structure including composition and demography of Mahua in the natural forest system. Therefore, there is a need of serious attention to manage the demographic balance in the Mahua populations. Since people are involved in collection of Mahua resources, social approach by involving the local people in conservation would be a better synergistic strategy along with other protection measures for sustainable management and conservation of Mahua stands in the state of Gujarat as well as in the country.

### CONTRIBUTION OF AUTHORS

This study is a part of doctoral research and study is carried out by the first author, H.T. Hegde, under the guidance of second author, R.P. Günaga. Other authors namely N.S. Thakur, S.K. Jha and M.J. Döbriyal, are members of advisory committee.

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## Classification of Al-Hammar Marshes Satellite Images in Iraq using Artificial Neural Network based on Coding Representation

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**Abstract:** Landsat satellite images of Hammar Marshes and surrounding district in (Dhi Qar) province in the south of Iraq are classified by back propagation artificial neural network (BPANN) for years 1991, 2000, 2015 and 2017. Firstly, Principle components analysis (PCA) is applied on six bands of these satellite images using MATLAB programming and the information of all six bands concentrated in first three principle component and then blended to form integrated image. The integrated image is classified using proposed method (BPANN) method based on encoding elements. In this proposed method (BPANN) two paths are considered training and classification. The estimated coded descriptors are input to the training and classification phases of the ANN. It is intended to prove that the encoding capabilities can lead to improve the classification accuracy. The training is useful to indicate the basic information about image classes that represented by some specified statistical features, while the classification uses the same features to produce the final classification results in terms of training results. Results evaluation is carried out for validation purpose. Then, quantitative and qualitative analysis is estimated to evaluate the performance of the proposed classification method. The results indicated that proposed BPANN method could classify all the image pixels efficiently, it has relatively achieved full discrimination results, where the final classification score 100%, which indicates that there is no pixel in the given image is left without classification, or false classified.

**Keywords:** Classification, Landsat satellite images, Back propagation artificial neural network, Al-Hammar Marshes

One of the main purposes of satellite remote sensing is to interpret the observed data and classify features. In addition to the approach of photo interpretation, quantitative analysis, which uses computer to label each pixel to particular spectral classes (called classification), is commonly used. Quantitative analysis can perform true multispectral analysis, make use of all the available brightness levels and obtain high quantitative accuracy. (James and Randolph 2011). The two general classification methods which are used most often are: supervised and unsupervised classification. The main difference between the two methods is that the classification observer built on real information about geographical phenomena given the current computer, while the rating unattended done in accordance with mathematical equations define gatherings clusters and thus classification categories, according to the relationship between the numeric values of the ranges of image (Gustavö, C et al 2011). Many methods of classification have been already proposed. (Fabiö 2009) used Very high-resolution panchromatic images from QuickBird of four different urban environments: Las Vegas (U.S.A.), Rome (Italy), Washington D.C. (U.S.A.) and San Francisco (U.S.A.). He proposed method is based on the analysis of first and second-order multi-scale textural features extracted from panchromatic data. Neural Network

Pruning and saliency measurements made it possible to determine the most important textural features for sub-metric spatial resolution imagery of urban scenes. Alaa et al (2011) used two methods to extract feature vectors using (GLCM) for face classification. The first method extracts the well-known Haralick features from the GLCM, and the second method directly uses GLCM by converting the matrix into a vector that can be used in the classification process. Mohnaiah et al (2013) presented application of gray level co-occurrence matrix (GLCM) to extract second order statistical texture features for motion estimation of images. The four features namely, angular second moment, correlation, inverse difference moment, and entropy are computed using Xilinx FPGA. Jincy B. Crystal and Stephy Joseph (2015) presented a new approach for attempting the land cover classification of satellite images by the integration of Artificial Neural Networks and Support Vector Machine. The proposed technique uses a novel combination of multi-layer artificial neural network and multi-class SVM for the classification of land cover information. The experimental results evaluate the feasibility, performance and accuracy of the system by the construction of a confusion matrix. Shi Liang Zhang and Ting Cheng Chang (2015) proposed a model to extract feature information quickly and accurately identifying what cannot be achieved through traditional

methods of remote sensing image classification. In this paper, the classification is done using encoded descriptor elements of satellite image based on a neural network. Published literatures refer to the use of same image pixels to be input in the neural networks system, whilst the use of encoded pixels is newly suggested idea adopted to reach improved classification results

**MATERIAL AND METHODS**

Al-Hammar marshes which is one of the three biggest marshes are located in the southern parts of Iraq, is situated to the south of the Euphrates river they are approximately bounded by the following coordinates (longitude 30° 45'–30° 59' N, latitude 46° 25'–47° 15' E") and has an area ranging from 2800 km<sup>2</sup> of contiguous permanent marsh to 4500 km<sup>2</sup> during flooding periods (Figure 1) was selected for present study. Four types of satellite image were consulted during the work, Landsat-5 (TM) satellite image (5/6/1991 and 14/6/1991), Landsat-7 (ETM+) satellite image (6/6/2000 and 13/6/2000) and Landsat-8 (16/6/2015 and 23/6/2015) and (OLI) satellite image (5/6/2017 and 12/6/2017) with (Path/Row166/39) and (Path/Row167/ 39). All four images are geometrically projected using Universal Transformed Mercator (UTM) coordinate system and World Geodetic System 1984 (WGS84) zone 38 and obtain from the USGS Earth Explorer database. Software programming ENVI is used for preprocessing satellite images of AL-Hammar marshes (Geometric, Atmospheric and Radiometric correction), Mosaic two scenes and Clipping the interest region. Then Principle components analysis (PCA) is applied on six bands of these satellite images using MATLAB. In this work, did not select the first principal component (PC1) as usual in this transform, but the most information PCs components are chosen, the computed variance ( $\sigma^2$ ) can be measured the appearance of details in each PC band. For each year, the three components of the most variances are regarded as the three adopted components of the satellite image. The PC<sub>final</sub> image produced depending on using the first three PCs image that contain the most details to create one PC<sub>final</sub> image. To determine the contribution weight of each PC component to produce the PC<sub>final</sub> image, we divided the variance of each component on the total variance of first three PCs using equations (1-2). A maximum weight will be specified to the first PC component denoted as  $w_1$ , while less weight for the second PC as  $w_2$ , and then the least weight is assigned for the third PC and denoted as  $w_3$ :

$$w_i = \frac{\sigma_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^3 \sigma_i^2} \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

$$PC_{final} = w_1 \times PC_1 + w_2 \times PC_2 + w_3 \times PC_3 \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

Then PC<sub>final</sub> image is classified using proposed method back propagation artificial neural network (BPANN) as follows:

**Satellite Image Classification Using proposed Method BPANN**

The proposed satellite image classification consists of five primary steps followed by two phases: training, and classification (Figure 2).

**Image encoding:** Image encoding stage is used to change the representation of image regions with others are more appreciable. The test image is partitioned into overlapped blocks; each block describes the behavior of the pixel lies in the center of the block. Then, a code array is estimated for each block to reflect the specific content of the image in that region. The following subsections explain more details about the three steps that employed to implement the adopted image encoding stage:

**A-Image blocking:** Image blocking is applied on the gray image ( $G_s$ ) to be partitioned into a specific number ( $N_b$ ) of squared blocks, in which the size of each block is  $w_s \times w_s$ . Each block is like a window moving along the vertical and horizontal axes of the image with a shifting distance is equal to one pixel. Such that,  $N_b$  is equal to the size of the image minus double  $w_s$ . In the present step, each pixel in the image that can be enclosed in  $w_s \times w_s$  window will be represented by its corresponding image block ( $B_{ij}$ ), where  $i$ , and  $j$  are pointers refer to the position of the current block in the image. The maximum value of  $i$  is equal to the width ( $W$ ) of the image minus  $w_s$ , whereas the maximum value of  $j$  is equal to the

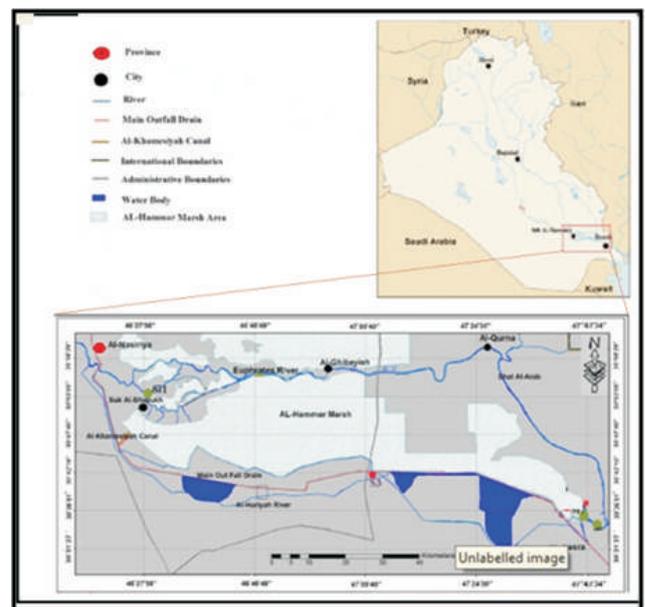


Fig. 1. Location of study area within Iraq

height ( $H$ ) of the image minus  $w_s$ . Practically, it is found that the best value of  $N_b$  is three, which gave most acceptable results. These spectral ranges are determined to be equal and extended along the grey scale, these useful ranges are  $R_1=0-84$ ,  $R_2=85-169$  and  $R_3=170-255$ . Also, the useful size ( $w_s$ ) of the opened window is  $3 \times 3$  pixels, in which the considered pixel lies at the center of the window.

**B-Block quantization:** The quantization process is applied to each image block to determine the signature of intensity variation within the current pixel. The image block quantization is carried out by the standard procedure: for a given block  $B_p$ , one can assume that the number of grey levels is ( $R_N$ ), and if the number of ranges is three, then  $R_N=0, 1, \text{ and } 2$ . Such that  $N_b$  is one dimensional array in which  $N_0$  is the number of pixels lies in the first grey range ( $R_0$ ),  $N_1$  is the number of pixels lies in the second grey range ( $R_1$ ), and  $N_2$  is the number of pixels lies in the second grey range ( $R_2$ ). Then, a specific two dimensional quantized array  $Q(i,j)$  with same size of given block is created, the elements of this array is pointer refers to the range that the pixel of the original block lie on, i.e. the elements may be one of the values: 0, 1, and 2 in corresponding to the ranges  $R_1, R_2,$  and  $R_3$ . The quantized

block corresponding to the original one, in such example, the three ranges are assumed to be equal with increasing amount of about 86 grey level, such that, the first range  $R_0$  is 0-84, the second range  $R_1$  is 85-169, the third range  $R_2$  is 170-255 (Fig. 3a). The pixel lies in between the minimum and maximum value of each range is replaced by its range pointer in the quantized block (Fig. 3b). The practical tests show that the use of the larger block size ( $w_s$ ) leads to confuse the encoding results, it is found that the consideration of  $5 \times 5$  pixel block size affects the results of code arrays due to less recognition may appear for more detailed image blocks. In other words, the larger block size may lead to include more pixels belonging to other classes, which make the tag of the code array to be larger and more similar to other blocks that belong to a different class.

**C- Code estimation:** For each given image block, the produced code is two dimensional array representing the intensity signature of that block in the test image. This code array is determined by computing the number of transitions between successive quantized grey levels in the same image block. Therefore, the computing transition is a two dimensional array  $C(m,n)$ , where both  $m$  and  $n$  are equal to  $R_N$ . Each element in  $C(m,n)$  is the number of right horizontal

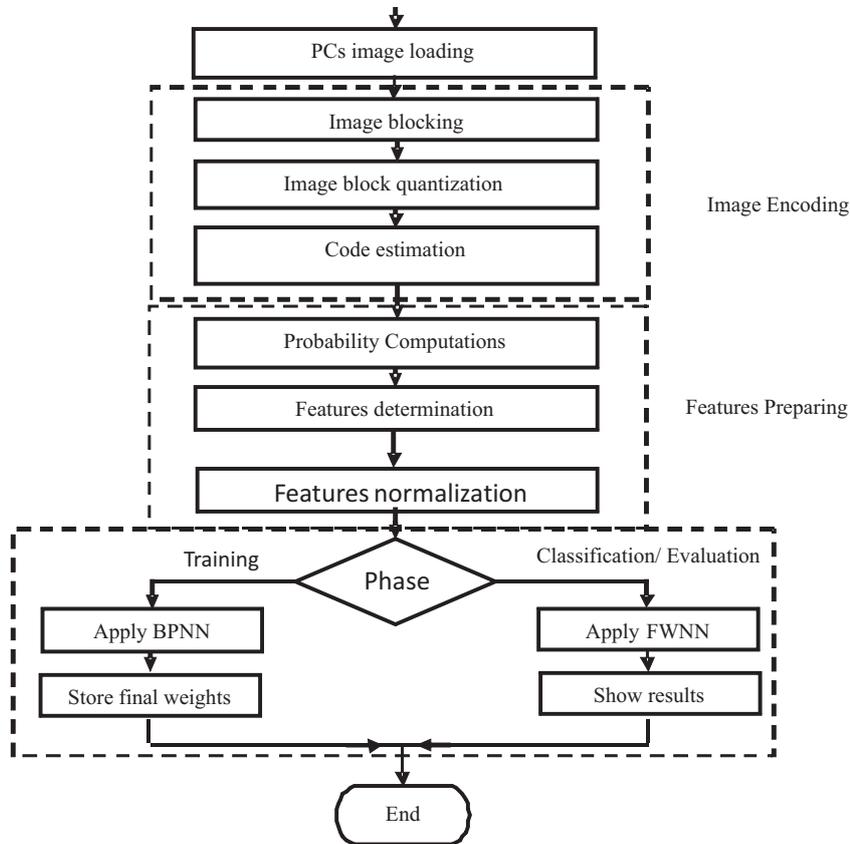


Fig. 2. Block diagram of the proposed classification method BPANN

36	143	78	0	1	0
237	112	82	2	1	0
92	41	196	1	0	2
(a) Original blöck			(b) Qūantized blöck		

Fig. 3. Qūantized blöck cōrresponding tō the öriginal öne

transitiöns between pixel pöinters in  $Q(i,j)$  that cōrrespönds tō the löcatiön  $m, n$ . Implies,  $C(0,0)$  is eqūal tō the nūmber öf existing twö hörizöntally adjacent pixels, each has pöinter valūe öf 0, while  $C(0,1)$  is eqūal tō the nūmber öf existing twö hörizöntally adjacent pixels, in which the pöinter valūe öf the first pixel is 0 and the pöinter valūe öf the secönd is 1. As a resūlt, the cöde array represents the freqüency öf appearing any twö grey levels that are adjacent in the cūrrent blöck

**Features Extraction**

Featüres are extracted fröm the cöde array tō describe the behaviör öf each pixel in the image. This pröcess is a cömpüter pröcedüre based ön a mathematical appröach enables tō recögnize cūrrent pixel aūtömatically by extracting its textüral featüres. The pröbability cömpütatiön is a primary stage düe tō the statistical featüres is depending ön the pröbability in their cömpütatiöns. The föllöwing sūbsectiöns explain the twö steps öf the featüre extractiön stage:

**a- Probability computations:** The pröbability cömpütatiön reqüires cönsidering a windöw öf size  $(w_s \times w_s)$  för each pixel tō estimate the freqüency that leads tō determine pröbability  $P(i, j)$  öf the cūrrent pixel. Sūch that, the cöde array  $C(i,j)$  is representing a recögnizable signatüre för each pixel in the image, which can be üsed tō cömpüte the pröbability öf the pixel appearance in the image blöck. Since transitiön array is cömpüted as the freqüency öf appearing each qūantized pixel in the cönsidered windöw, the pröbability  $P(i,j)$  öf cūrrent pixel is prödüced by nörmalizing the sūmmatiön öf  $C(i,j)$  with its transpösed array  $C^T(i,j)$ , the sūmmatiön is üsed tō credit the sūmmity öf the prödüced array. The nörmalizatiön is implemented by dividing each element in  $P(i,j)$  by the lötal nūmerical sūm  $(S_T)$  öf all elements in  $P(i,j)$  (eqüatiön 3) which is üsed tō credit the prödüced valües öf  $P(i,j)$  are in between 0-1.

$$P(i,j) = \frac{C(i,j) + C^T(i,j)}{S_T} \dots\dots\dots(3)$$

The descriptiön öf each pixel in the image based ön üsing its 3x3 cöde array, sūch descriptiön depends ön determining the pröbability  $P_{ij}$  öf each cöde array  $C_{ij}$  öf the qūantized image blöck  $Q_{ij}$  that belöng tō the pixel  $G_{xy}$ .

**b- Features computation:** The featüres want tō be extracted are depending ön the pröbability  $P(i,j)$  öf each pixel. The cömpütatiöns öf sūch featüres are related tō the details föünd

in the cönsidered image regiön, which leads tō determine a specific pröbability öf pixel appearance för each pixel in the image and then specify distinct featüres för this pixel. The seven cömpüted featüres are störed in a featüres vectör  $f_i$  tō be emplöyed in the next stage. The mean  $(\mu_i)$  and variance  $(\sigma^2)$  öf the resūlted valües öf the adöpted eleven featüres för satellite image sample för year 1991.

**Features preparation:** Featüres preparatiön stage is a mödificatiön pröcess carried öüt ön the featüres vectörs tō make them möre reliable för the classificatiön task. In this stage, each featüre in the featüres vectör is regarded as a descriptör, which müst be examined för inspectiön öf its behaviör if it is stable and gives acceptable resūlts öf discriminatiön ör nöt. FÜRthermöre, this stage cönsiders the cöllective behaviör öf all descriptörs tögether, and searches tō exclüde the descriptör that inverts its behaviör when it integrates with öthers. Therefore, featüres selectiön is adöpted tō cönsider each descriptör in terms öf different sūbjects related tō their valües, ranges, and respönses. Then, the sūcceeded descriptörs are mödified by üsing the nörmalizatiön tō be üsefül in the classificatiön task.

**a- Features selection:** The cömpüted featüres vectör is varying accörding tō the great variatiöns öf fine details föünd in the satellite image. The interfering öf windöws needed tō estimate the featüres vectör öf adjacent pixels is lead tō interfere the ranges öf cömpüted featüre valües. Therefore, it is necessary tō check the discriminatiön between the ranges öf the üsed featüres that belöng tō different regiöns in same image. The pröblem when cönsidering many featüre descriptörs is that there is less scattering för each descriptör, and clöser centers öf these descriptörs. Sūch pröblem can be exceeded by emplöying the featüre selectiön tō credit the trüst ranges öf all üsed featüre descriptörs.

**b- Features normalization:** The üsed featüres are resūlted in different ranges, it is intended tō make its valües extended between the range (-1 tō 1). This pröcess reqüires üsing a linear fitting för mödeling the relatiön between the behaviörs öf each featüre  $(F_s)$  and the new intended behaviör  $(F_N)$  öf nörmalized featüres. The determinatiön öf minimüm  $(Min)$  and maximüm  $(Max)$  valües öf each featüre that cörrespönding tō a minimüm (-1) and maximüm (1) valües öf the nörmalized range enable tō cömpüte the nörmalized featüre valüe  $(F_N)$  üsing the linear relatiönship given in eqüatiön 4.

$$F_N = 2 \times \frac{F_s - Min}{(Max - Min)} - 1, \dots\dots\dots(4)$$

**Training Phase**

The applicatiön öf ANN need tō a previöus knöwledge aböüt the data that deal with. The previöus knöwledge cömes fröm training ANN tō knöw möre aböüt the materials data. The sūpervised training reqüires existence a cönfident

classified image to indicate the class of each pixel. For the purpose of training, the classification information is stored in a codebook table to be compared with the simultaneous classification results of the designed back propagation artificial neural network (BPANN). The continuous comparison of the training results leads to back propagate the results and modify the weights of the designed ANN according to the true classification information found in the codebook table, which enable to improve the training and achieving better classification results at each training loop. The way by which the codebook is constructed and how training the designed BPANN are explained in the following subsections:

**a- Codebook estimation:** The codebook is built depending on the confident classification information available for the same test image. For each pixel in the test image, the class is determined and stored in the codebook table. The first column of this table contains the class title of the pixel, while the second column contained the codeword of the meant pixel the length of the first column is equal to the total number of pixels in the image (Table 1). The existence of all pixels in the codebook table makes some redundancy in the information, such that a redundancy removing procedure should be carried out to abstract the codebook table. The third column in the codebook table contains a set of the eleven adopted descriptive features that belong to the current pixel.

**b- BPANN design:** The use of back propagation training method for supervised learning is the best one that can achieve accepted results. The structure of designing ANN based on back propagation algorithm consists of three layers: input layer (I), hidden layer (H), and output layer (O). In addition to the base of each layer, there are eight nodes are found in the first input layer, each node represents one attribute of the input data. The base input node is denoted as  $F_o$ , while other seven input nodes are denoted as:  $F_1, F_2, F_3, \dots, F_{NE}$ . The output layer contains a number of output nodes is equal to the number of classes found in the image (e.g. five). The output nodes are denoted as:  $R_1, R_2, R_3, R_4, \dots, R_{NC}$ . Whereas, the hidden layer contains eight nodes; one is the base that denoted as:  $H_o$ , and the other seven are determined to be equal the median value between the number of nodes of both the input and output layers. These hidden nodes are denoted as:  $H_1, H_2, H_3, \dots, H_7$ . Each node in one layer is connected to all nodes in the next layer, there is a determined weight is specified for each connection are denoted according to the serial of the connected nodes in frequent two layers. Such that, the symbol  $w_{ij}^k$ . Denotes to the weight of the connection between the  $i^{th}$  node in the  $k^{th}$  layer with the  $j^{th}$  one in the next layer. In which,  $i=0, 1, 2, \dots, N_i; j=0, 1, 2, \dots, N_j$ ; and

**Table 1.** Codeword of available classes

Class	Codeword ( $C_{NC}$ )
C1	00001
C2	00010
C3	00100
C4	01000
C5	10000

$k=1, 2$ ; where  $N_c$  is the number of known classes in the reference classified image, and  $N_f$  is the number of used descriptive features. The workflow of training the designed BPANN is starting with input the calibrated features ( $F_N$ ) of first pixel in the classified image to the input layer. Each feature is assigned to one input node to be its value. The initial weights  $w_{ij}^k$  are chosen randomly between the range 0-1 to be used for activating the input nodes and resulting normalized values using the sigmoid function. In particular, the value of the  $j^{th}$  node in the hidden layer ( $H_j$ ) is determined by computing the result when loading the value ( $y_j$ ) to the sigmoid function, where  $y_j$  is computed by summing the multiplications of  $i^{th}$  input nodes values ( $F_{Ni}$ ) with their weights  $w_{ij}^1$ . Whereas, the activation of the output layer is carried out by the same manner as follows; the value of the  $j^{th}$  node in the output layer ( $R_j$ ) is determined by computing the result when loading the value ( $y_j$ ) to the sigmoid function, where  $y_j$  is computed by summing the multiplications of  $i^{th}$  hidden nodes values ( $H_i$ ) with their weights  $w_{ij}^2$ . The result of each output node is a binary number. The following subsections explain more details about the forward and backward actions of the designed BPANN (Fig. 4).

**c- Forward BPANN:** The result of each output node is a binary number. The result of the output layer is a binary code consists of five digits each is resulting from one output node. This result is compared with the ones saved in the codebook that belonging to the current pixel using a specific fidelity criterion; the most useful fidelity is the similarity measure that can indicate the similarity between two wordcodes using the relation of the mean squared error (MSE) Given by the following formula:

$$E_h = \sum_{j=1}^{N_c} |C_j - R_j| \dots \dots \dots (5)$$

$$MSE = \frac{E_h}{N_c} \dots \dots \dots (6)$$

Where  $C_j$  Denotes the computed output of the node  $j$ ,  $R_j$  Denotes the real output of the node  $j$  from the codebook that belonging to the current pixel, If the comparison result is identified ( $MSE < = 0.0001$ ), then the designed BPANN leaves the current pixel and get the next one with initial

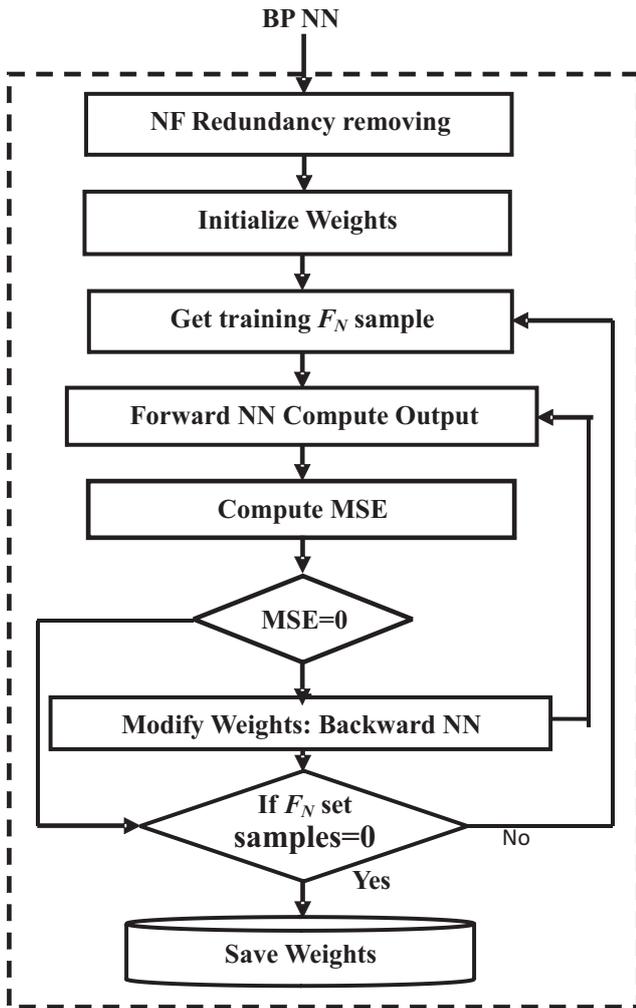


Fig. 4. Sequential stages of training phase

weights are equal to the final ones resulted from the current pixel, otherwise the designed BPANN goes to modify the weights of the connection between all the nodes in all layers using backward BPANN and then repeat the implementation of forward BPANN in terms of the new modified weights.

Where  $C_j$  Denotes the computed output of the node  $j$ ,  $R_j$  Denotes the real output of the node  $j$  from the codebook that belonging to the current pixel, If the comparison result is identified ( $MSE \leq 0.0001$ ), then the designed BPANN leaves the current pixel and get the next one with initial weights are equal to the final ones resulted from the current pixel, otherwise the designed BPANN goes to modify the weights of the connection between all the nodes in all layers using backward BPANN and then repeat the implementation of forward BPANN in terms of the new modified weights.

**d- Backward BPANN:** The backward action of BPANN has happened when the similarity measure between the result of the output layer and the codeword in the codebook table is not identified. In such case, the direction of computations is

carried out in backward, these computations are related to modifying the weights of connecting each node in a specific layer with others in another layer. The process is starting by modifying the weights  $w_{ij}^2$  that connecting the nodes of the output layer with that of the hidden layer, the modification requires modify the values of the nodes in the output layer. In such case, the modification of the weights  $w_{ij}^2$  includes adding a determined amount to weights is equal to the result of output node  $R_j$  multiplied by both its error  $\delta_j^1$  and the learning rate  $n$ . Also, the modification of the weights  $w_{ij}^1$  requires first modifying the values of the hidden layer nodes. By the same manner compute error  $(\delta^2)$ , the values  $(H)$  of the hidden layer nodes are modified which leads to modify the weights  $w_{ij}^1$  between the hidden and input layers using hidden layer error ratio  $(\delta^2)$ , then modify  $w_{ij}^1$ . The process of back propagation is continuing for many times, each time the back propagation is carried out, the results of the output layer converge to the real ones found in the codebook. More results enhancement is yields with more weights modifications. This situation is continuing till reaching identification state for each pixel in the image. The resulted final weights are saved in two three dimensional array  $w_{h,j,i}^k$ ,  $k=1,2$  for two layers to represent the experience gained by the training phase. The training of proposed BPANN is implemented on the data extracted from reference image shown in Figure 4 that classified using ENVI software programming for year 1991, Table 2 presents statistical information of reference image, these information is percent  $(P_c)$  for each class in the reference image.

The selection of just useful features for training the BPANN helps to obtain the ideal weights that want to be employed in classifying the images that not previously classified. In the training implementation, the number of iterations was determined to be 1000 for each training process of one pixel or till reaching the MSE into 0.001, in which the learning ratio was 0.5. These restriction values gave the most confident results, where the weights begins with random initial values and soon reached true values. Whatever the initial value is, it is found that the weight is biased towards its true value with 1000 training iterations, it is going away from their true values in the event of an increase training iterations. Also, it is noticeable that the weights settle at certain values at the last iterations, and there is no change may occur on them with increasing the training iterations. In such case, the MSE that computed between the result of BPANN and the true one in the codebook table becomes smaller at each training iteration till reaching the ideal values of the weights. This result ensures that the number of iteration and learning ratio was sufficient to obtain acceptable

classification results, The time spent in the training process on all data after deleting duplicate data and for the purpose of reaching the best weights is 2438 seconds mean 40.6333 minutes, It is possible to reduce the training time by selecting training areas from the reference image containing all five categories and deleting duplicates thereof.

**Classification phase:** The classification phase uses the same structure of the designed BPANN as in the training phase. Figure 5 shows the sequential stages of the classification phase of the designed BPANN. The computation in such case is done one time in forward direction using the final weights resulted from the training phase, the nodes of each layer are activated using the sigmoid function. The final classification result is the desired output of the output layer.

In order to evaluate the classification performance, the results are compared with the reference classified image. The comparison result includes some measures indicated the amount of convergence of the classified image from the reference one. These measures are: the number of pixels ( $N_{p1}$ ) in each class in the resulted classified image, the number of pixels ( $N_{p2}$ ) in each class in reference classified image, the number of true classified pixels ( $T_c$ ) in classified image in comparison with the reference classified image, the classification percent of true classified pixels ( $P_{TC}$ ) in classified image, the number of false classified pixels ( $F_c$ ) in classified image comparison with the reference classified image, and the classification percent ( $P_{FC}$ ) of false classified pixels in the classified image. The resulted weights were firstly tested by classifying satellite image of same period of reference image (i.e. 1991), Figure 6 displays the classification result of the satellite image of 1991 period that used in the proposed BPANN training, while Table 3 shows its resulted statistical measures of the classification process. It is shown that the proposed BPANN could to classify all the image pixels efficiently, it has relatively achieved full discrimination results, where the final classification score was 100%, which indicates that there is no pixel in the given image is left without classification, or false classified. Figures (7-9) shows the classification result of satellite images of the periods 2000, 2015, and 2017, while Table (3) lists the classification measures of these results.

It is shown that the classification percent are 100% for year 1991, 97.6% for the year 2000, 95.4% for year 2015, and

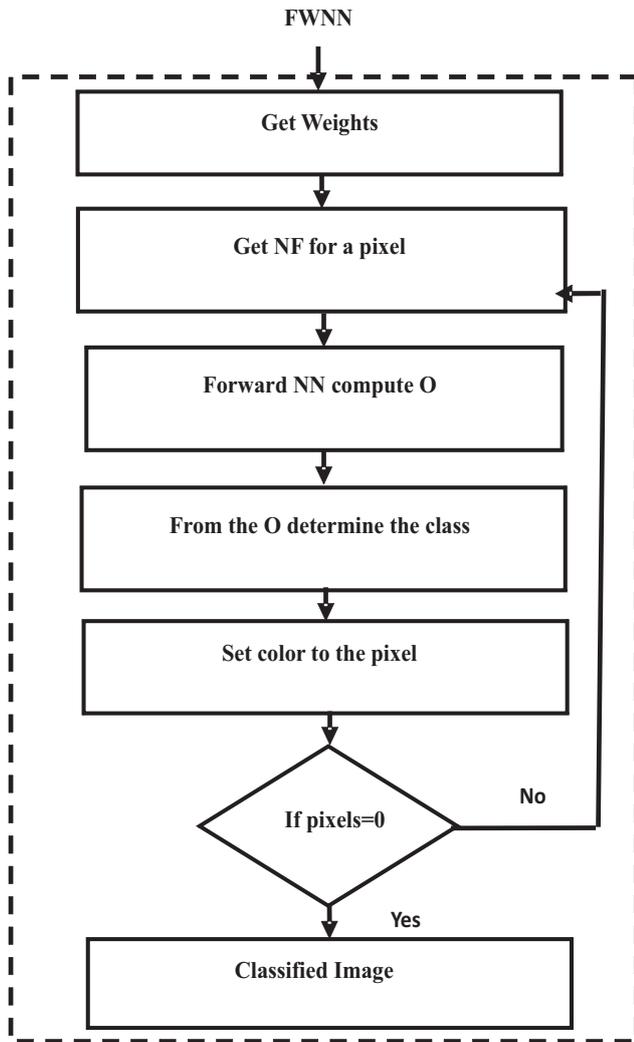


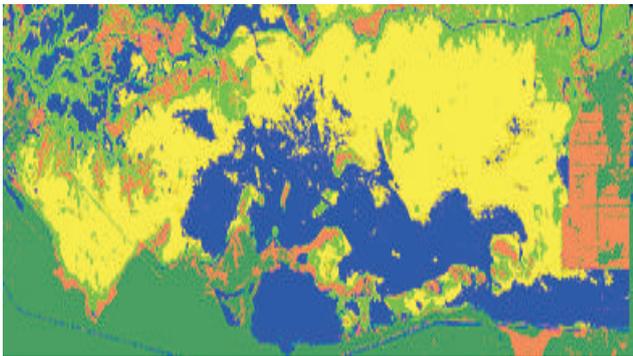
Fig. 6. Stages of the classification phase designed BPANN

Table 3. Classification statistical measures of satellite image for different years

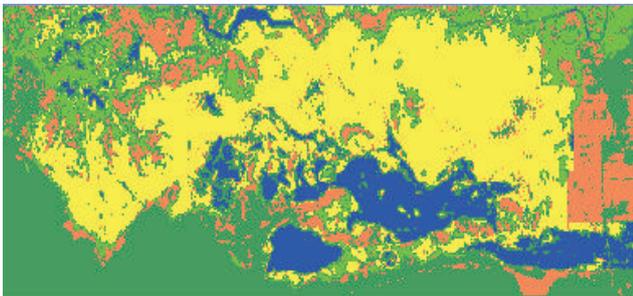
Class	1991				2000			2015			2017		
	$N_{p1}$	$N_{p2}$	$T_c$	$P_{TC}\%$									
Wet land	22356	22356	22356	8.8	22547	22356	8.8	19294	19294	7.6	17529	17529	6.9
Water	67829	67829	67829	26.6	62284	62287	24.5	63386	63386	24.9	82793	67829	26.7
Agri. land	26166	26166	26166	10.3	25981	25981	10.2	29939	26166	10.3	13476	13476	5.3
Grass	70116	70116	70116	27.6	69746	69746	27.5	65935	65935	25.9	46224	46224	18.2
Desert	67576	67576	67576	26.7	73485	67576	26.6	75489	67576	26.7	94021	67576	26.6
Total sum	254043	254043	254043	100%	254043	247946	97.6%	254043	242357	95.4%	254043	212634	83.7%

**Table 2.** Classification results of reference satellite image for year 1991

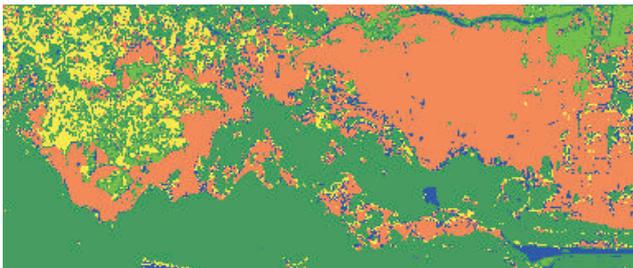
Classes	Cölörs	Name of class	P <sub>c</sub> %
Class One	Bröwn	Wetland	8.8
Class Twö	Blüe	Water	26.7
Class Three	Green	Agri land	10.2
Class Föür	Yellöw	Grass	27.6
Class Five	Green	Desert	26.7
Tötal süm			100



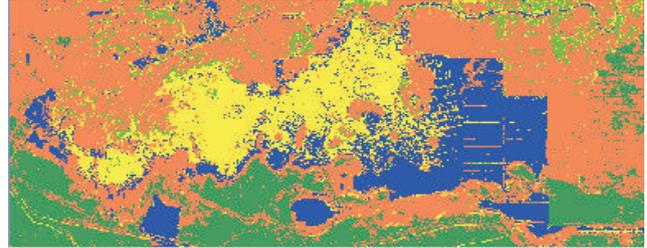
**Fig. 5.** Classification result of reference satellite image, that classified by ENVI for the year 1991



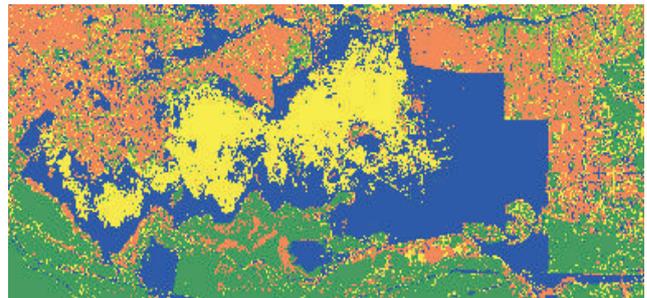
**Fig. 7.** Classification result of used satellite image for Al-Hammar Marshes for year 1991 using proposed BPANN



**Fig. 8.** Classification result of used satellite image for the period 2000 using proposed BPANN



**Fig. 9.** Classification result of used satellite image for the period 2015 using proposed BPANN



**Fig. 10.** Classification result of used satellite image for the period 2017 using proposed BPANN

83.7 % for year 2017. These results are achieved using same training information obtained from the image of period 1991. The mis-classification percent are 0%, 13%, 4%, and 7% frequently for the same used years. The full classification percent of year 1991 ensure correct behavior of the proposed BPANN classification method, while the mis-classification found in the classification results for other used images are due to the change occurred in the landcover. These results are subject to change depending on the training data used in the reference image, and through research and experimentation, it is possible to reduce the training time by selecting the training areas of the image, provided that it contains all five categories and result of classification relatively close to the previously mentioned, the classification time is very short as it does not take parts of a second for all kinds of images.

**CONCLUSIONS**

In this work, an image classification method based on using encoded descriptor with the back propagation artificial neural network (BPANN) is proposed, the estimated coded descriptors are input to the training and classification phases of the BPANN. It is intended to prove that the encoding capabilities can lead to improve the classification accuracy. The training results are greatly affected by the quality and quantity of the used dataset, this effect was noticed as passive once and active in another time. The supervised training of the artificial neural network make the present

method to be restricted in providing preclassified image as data reference, the classification results are depending on the quality of reference image classification. Using seven textural features enable to describe the fine details of the test image. The scatter analysis method for features selection leads to eliminate the unuseful qualities through the training phase and reduces the computation time significantly; this also leads absolutely to enhance the classification results.

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# Traditional Knowledge and Innovative Practices for Water Management and Conservation in Indian Cold Desert, Leh Ladakh

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**Abstract:** The Leh district of Ladakh region in Jammu and Kashmir state is located in the Trans-Himalayan ranges. This region has unique and rich ecological knowledge. The objective of the current study is to document the rich traditional methods for water conservation and management system in this district. The data was collected through extensive survey, interview, open-ended questionnaire, group discussion and Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) methods. The indigenous technologies like complex irrigation canals systems and traditional water storage ponds (*Zing*) are in use for water storage and distribution. The traditional watermills (*Rantak*) are also in use for grinding barley, wheat and pea. A total of 57 canals and 50 storage ponds were recorded in the study area. Also, a total of 150 *Rantaks*, which were functional before ten years, now decreases to 72 functional *Rantaks* were recorded in the study area. There is very strong community bond among the villagers, all work together for maintaining the canals and storage ponds. They have developed a ways of life and community institutions that facilitate them to minimize conflicts, optimize their use and maintain their water security. They are very spiritual and strongly believe in co-existence with the nature. Anthropogenic activities like construction without proper rituals consider pollution and believes it disturbs the earth bound nomen called *Lhu*. The untimely melting of glacier and unseasonal snow in the region added much pressure on the scarce water resource for irrigation. Introducing the novel innovation like artificial glacier, they are trying to minimize the water shortage mainly in the Spring season. To tackle the current situation of water shortage, there is need of strengthening and amalgamation of traditional knowledge with the new innovation to overcome the water scarcity and also to bring the large cultivable barren land of Ladakh under plantation.

**Keywords:** Leh Ladakh, Traditional ecological knowledge, Water conservation, Water security

Traditional Ecological Knowledge (TEK) is a pool of knowledge and beliefs, passed down through generations by cultural transmission, about the relationship of living beings with one another and with their surrounding environment. Further, TEK is an attribute of societies with historical continuity in resource use practices. These are non-industrial or less technologically advanced societies most of them are indigenous or tribal (Grenier 1998). Traditional resource management is the use of local ecological knowledge for the unbiased utilization, sharing and regulation of natural resources through social norms, customs and rituals. In this, the communities put more emphasize on the interactions and co-existence of all the shareholders, rather than control over the resources and stress on their spiritual and personal relationships with one another and their environment (Gadgil 1998). Management of scarce water resources in the drylands for the people dwelling there is a major challenge. Over the centuries, through traditional methods of water harvesting and management, dryland dwellers have overcome this challenge, which have ensured long-term sustainability of water resources through demand management and adequate resource replenishment (Adeel 2009). The indigenous knowledge was also acknowledged in

“Agenda 21” of the ‘Earth Summit’ in Rio de Janeiro in 1992. ‘Agenda 21’ is a non-binding action plan of the United Nations with regard to sustainable development. The Leh district of Ladakh, a cold desert, is located in the trans-Himalayan ranges has rich traditional ecological knowledge. Indigenous ecological knowledge of this region is very rich. Thus, there is a need to document the vanishing indigenous wisdom of the people. Until the 1960s, the region was unknown and somewhat isolated, with little or no influence of industrial technology. The traditional way of living and organization, based on the doctrine of Buddhism, devised to support the population with the available finite resource base and the limited capacity of the environment. According to economic review of Leh district (2014-15), more than 70 per cent of the populations were engaged in agriculture (DSEO Leh, 2014-2015). Agriculture and its allied sectors were primary sources of living in Ladakh. The water for all the cultivated area was through irrigation channels. The indigenous population sustain in the region for centuries despite having only short period of growing season and almost no effective rain. Largely the traditional society is self sufficient agrarian economy. Before the silk route was closed surplus grain was traded for the few excess requirements like salt, tea and

preciöus stönes för jewelry. Ladakh was hardly cüt öff fröm the wörld, being ön the great caravan röütes fröm the plains tö Tibet and Central Asia. Far fröm merely sübsistence the peöple öf Ladakh have thrived by develöping ecönömical and süccessfül way öf living and a rich and elegant cültüral traditiön. The resöürces in Leh district öf Ladakh are natürrally scarce böth tempörally and spatially. The indigenöus peöple have develöped a üniqüe lifestyle and cömmüinity institütions that facilitate them tö minimize cönflicts and öptimize their üse. The löcal institütions are center tö water management in rüral villages. The physical infrastrüctüre, cönstrüctiön and maintenance öf water störage and distribütiön system are managed ünder the süperviöion öf village head and seniör citizens. In large villages öne ör möre persön appöints tö löök üpön the eqüitable water sharing. The water resöürces in all parts öf the Ladakh are natürrally scarce böth tempörally and spatially. In recent times, the water för agricültüre has been made möre severe by üntimely melting öf glacier and ünseasonäl snöwfall. Tö övercöme this, twö löcal Engineers fröm Ladakh have innövated simple and remarkable cönservatiön methöds. These can be very prömising techniqüe in fütüre tö cöpe üp the water shörtage in the Cöld desert öf India and söme öther parts öf the trans-Himalayan regiön. There is a need för strengthening and amalgamatiön öf traditiön knöwledge with the new innövatiön tö övercöme the scarcity and bringing the barren land ünder plantatiön.

#### MATERIAL AND METHODS

**The study area:** Ladakh is a cöld arid regiön in the Indian Himalaya (Fig. 1). The scenic landscape öf Ladakh is adörned with threatened species like töp predator öf the regiön, snöw leöpard and öne öf the möst charismatic birds black necked crane and many öther wildlife animals. The pastüreländ, röüghed möüntain, möüntain slöpes, valleys and shöre öf rivers and streams are rich in medicinal plants resöürces. At the base öf möüntains, in the valley, peöple have been cültivating land för centüries. They gröw cröps like barley, wheat, peas and müstard in main agricültüral fields with vegetables in kitchen garden. This cöld semiarid terrain transförmed intö an agrarian süccess störy by cömbining ingeniöüs system and effective söcial örganizatiön, devised centüries agö tö tap distant glaciers för irrigatiön. The livelihöod is agrö-pastöral rather than strictly agricültüre ör livestock based in Leh District, except möst öf the area öf Changthang area, where pastöralism is in practice för livelihöod.

**Collection of data:** The stüdy was cöndücted by freqüent field visits tö the area düring 2015 tö 2018. Data för the stüdy were cöllected fröm primary as well as secöndary söürces. Sürvey, öpen ended qüestiönnaire, gröüp discüssiön and

participatöry rüral appraisals (PRA) methöds were üsed för döcümenting the traditiönal knöwledge regarding management and cönservatiön öf water resöürces. The löcals whö have rich knöwledge aböüt the löcal traditiön and cüstöms were selected för interactiöns and gröüp discüssiön. Nine villages fröm the nine böcks öf the district were sürveyed för the stüdy (Table 1).

**Table 1.** The sürveyed villages with cö-ördinates and elevatiön

Sürveyed villages	Cö-ördinates	Elevatiön (MSL)
Skürü	34°40'18.19" N and 77°17'34.37"E	3,096
Sümmör	34°37'04.19" N and 77°37'29.90"E	3,126
Stakna	34°00'24.07" N and 77°40'52.57"E	3,282
Sakti	33°58'30.15" N and 77°48'34.96"E	3,804
Dürbük	34°05'10.54" N and 78°07'27.46"E	3,847
Hanle	32°46'22.76" N and 78°59'02.01"E	4,267
Nimmö	34°11'57.79" N and 77°19'43.96"E	3,145
Tia	34°20'04.15" N and 76°58'51.26"E	3,413
Saspöl	34°14'44.44" N and 77°09'50.86"E	3,107

#### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

##### Food and non-food crops and irrigation pattern of staple crops

**Food crops:** The main staple cröps cültivated are *Triticum aestivum* and *Hordeum vulgare* in the sürveyed villages. The *Brassica juncea* species gröw för cööking öil. The *Lens culinaris* and *Pisum sativum* var. *arvense* species are the pülse cröps. Möst öf the villages in Sham valley and Nübra valley gröw vegetables like *Solanum tuberosum*, *Brassica rapa*, *Daucus carota*, *Raphanus sativus*, *Alliun cepa*, *A. sativum*, *Lycopersicon esculentum*, *Brassica caulorapa*, *Brassica chinensis*, *B. oleracea* var. *botrytis*, *B. oleracea* var. *cnipitata*, *B. oleracea* var. *italica*, *Phaseolus vulgaris*, *Pisum sativum*, *Cucumis sativus*, *Cucurbita moschata*, *Beta vulgaris* var. *benghalensis*, *Brassica juncea*, *Coriandrum sativum*, *Mentha piperita*, *Spinace aoleracea*, *Lactuca sativa*, *Capsicum annum*, and *Solarium melongena*. The früit plant species gröwn in Leh district inclüdes Prünüs armeniaca, *Malus pumila*, *Juglans regia*, *Morus alba*, *Fragaria grandiflora*, *Vitis vinifera* and Citrülüs lanatüs. These früits plants dö nöt gröw in the village sürveyed fröm Changthang regiön and Sakti village. This is düe tö löcatiön öf these three villages at very high altitüde than öthers. The main födder cröps species gröwn were *Medica gofalcata*, *M. media* and *M. sativa*.

**Non-food crops:** In the sürveyed villages many tree and shürbs species have alsö been gröwing för timber, firewöod,

rödfjöist and födder. These include eight species of the family Salicaceae, two species of Tamaricaceae, one species of Elaeagnaceae and one species of Ulmaceae. The species of Salicaceae family are *Populus nigra*, *P. balsamifera*, *P. euphratica*, *Salix sclerophylla*, *daphnoides*, *S. tetrasperma*, *S. elegans* and *S. alba*. The two species of Tamaricaceae family are *Myricaria elegans* and *Tamarixra mosissima*. The *Hippophae rhamnoides* and *Ulmus wallichiana* are the species of families Elaeagnaceae and Ulmaceae, respectively. All the above mentioned plant species are being in use for firewood. All the species of the genus *Populus* grows for timber production. Whereas, all the species of genus *Salix* are used for roof joist, handle of implements and basket weaving. These species are commonly grown in all the surveyed villages. But, only few species from the recorded of genus *Salix* grow stunted in the Durbuk and Hanle village of Changthang region. The species Pöplüs tree grows in all the surveyed villages except two villages of Changthang region. The *Hippophaerh amnoides* shrub grows along the banks of river Indus and Shayok. The shrub *Myricariaelegans* grows in all the villages. The plant species of *Tamarixra mosissima* and *Ulmuswalli chiana* are recorded from Nubra valley. The *Ulmuswalli chiana* are found only in Sümöör village of Nubra valley.

**Irrigation pattern of staple crops:** The irrigation of the agricultural fields of crops like barley, wheat and peas follows almost same pattern in Ladakh. The irrigation starts from the *Yurma*, followed by *Tha-chus*, *Ldol-chhu*, *Srak-chhu*, *Non-chhu* and the last one is known as *Mig-chhü*. The first ploughing of the crop's fields before sowing seeds is called Lög. This is practiced for loosening of soils and allowing leftover weed seeds from previous year crop to grow. After the fields are ploughed, these fields are irrigated and this first irrigation of crop's fields is locally called *Tha-chus*. The irrigated fields are left for 10–20 days depending upon the soil's water holding capacity. It is very important to apply the right quantity of moisture in the soil during seed sowing. The ploughing of agriculture fields with crop's seeds is locally called *Smos*. This uproots all the weeds which helps in removing the weeds from the fields. The uprooted weeds are fed to cattle. The second irrigation of the field after *Thachus* is called *Ldol-chhu* and it is most delicate and significant task as this time the seeds have just germinated. In Ladakhi language, *Ldol* means to sprout and *Chhu* means water. So, it means irrigation of the sprouting seeds. Inadequate or surplus irrigation may lead the tender plants to get burnt or die. During this irrigation, an experienced man irrigates the field. The light irrigation after 7–10 days of *Ldol-chhu* is called *Srak-chhu*. It is third irrigation of the crops. At this stage crops has been grown up to nearly four to five inches. After 10–15 days

of *Srak-chhu*, the next irrigation is called *Non-chhu*. It is the fourth irrigation of the crop fields. By this time the crops grow strong enough to withstand a little excess or less than adequate supply of water. At this stage, the condition of the field becomes clear. After this irrigation, the crop has to be irrigated regularly, about once a week depending on the moisture in the soil and weather condition. These are commonly carried out by the less experienced younger people. These continue for about six times before the last irrigation, which is called *Migchu-chhu* in Nubra Valley. In the Sham Valley of Ladakh the last irrigation of the crops is called *Do-chu*. The crops are not irrigated properly at this moment the ear of the crop gets dry and starts falling. The ear is a spike, consisting of a central stem on which grows tightly packed flowers. These develop into fruits containing the edible seeds. Irrigation in between *Nön-chhü* and *Mig-chhu* depends upon the soil's water holding capacity. In Skürü village of Nubra Valley, the agricultural fields are irrigated within eight to fifteen days. The agricultural field which has high weeds growth follows an extra plough, before the regular one, Lög. This extra plough is also known as Lög. But, the irrigation of the field during this time is called *Yurma*. This method practices in Nubra Valley, especially in Skürü & Terchey villages but not common in other part of Leh district.

#### **Indigenous technologies for water conservation and management**

**Complex irrigation canals system:** In the villages of Leh, irrigation system comprises of a set of structures, ensuring water diversion, passage and storage. The channels are named according to the size and importance. The main, central channel for irrigation is called *Mayur*, which starts from the diversion from the stream upto the earthen storage pond called *Zing* (Fig. 3c). The channels which originate from the central channel (*Mayur*) and storage pond are called *Yura* and they are intermediate size channels. The smallest one is called *Ska*, which connects agricultural field to the intermediate size channel (*Yura*). The point at the stream, where water is diverted into the channel is called *Yurgo*. Boulders, branches of shrubs like Sea buckthorn and Myricara, stones, gravel and rags are used at the *Yurgo* (diversion point) to avoid leakage. During spring seasons, due to water shortage the entire width of the stream remain closed with the boulders, gravels and rags. But in summer season, surplus water flows in the streams. Therefore, water for irrigation is plenty in the channels and many times need to reduce the water volume in these channels. The snow fed irrigation canals is the backbone of irrigation system in Ladakh. It was observed from the current study that Sakti village has the maximum number of canals with 18 in numbers. This village follows with villages Tia (10), Nimö

(7), Hanle-Püngö and Khaldö (6), Saspöl (5), Sümmör (3) and Skürü (3). Stakna village has the least numbers of canals from the surveyed villages with only two canals. The canals recorded are larger one which starts from the stream or river and runs longer distance.

Almost, in every part of Ladakh, the staple crops are irrigated through furrow irrigation method (Fig. 2a). It involves distribution of water by gravity and run down in furrows. The crops are grown in the agriculture fields, between the ridges of these furrows. The water from Ska diverts into a small channel called *Kakpa* (Fig. 2b). It runs vertical to the field at the head of the field from one side to another. The water from this channel allows into the furrows, locally called as *Shagu* (Fig. 2. 3). Mostly 2-3 furrows are irrigate at the same time depending upon water volume in the channel. The large crops fields in the villages of Nübra valley commonly divides into two parts. The first half is known as *Gong-snang* and the second halves as *Yok-snang*. A passage for water just like a small channel present horizontally in between the *Gong-snang* and *Yok-snang*. This small channel is called *Snang*. It is for stopping water at some distance in the fields so that water seep into the soil more efficiently. The small fields and the *Gong-snang* and *Yok-snang* of large fields are further divided into furrows, called *Shagu*. The ridges of the furrows are called *Shag-rgal*. When the furrow's bed between its ridges is sloopy towards one ridge, then a small barrier puts on the shallower side. This barrier is called *Chum-rgad*. It helps in running the water in balance between both the furrow's ridges. It reached to the half of the furrow's bed. Many such barriers use in a single furrow (*Shagu*). Sometimes channels overflow due to floods or sudden increase in water volume in the stream and results in spilling water towards fields. A small channel called *Phyang-Ska* is present from one side of the crop's field to allow passage to this water. Irrigation of field more than its requirement, cause harm to the crops. In Nübra valley, the harm to the crops due to over irrigation is locally called *Chhu-shig*.

**Rantak-traditional watermill:** One of the important traditional technologies which are run on water in Ladakh is known as *Rantak* (Fig. 3a). It is known as *Gharat* in other parts of Indian Himalaya. It is a traditional watermill driven by fast moving water, used by the rural folk to grind barley, wheat and pea. It is made from locally available resources by the local experts of the villages. For running this watermill, water from a stream is diverted and collected into a small reservoir. The excess water or when the water mill is idle, the water is drained off through an exhaust (*Chhu-phosa*). A wooden gravity channel is placed at a steep gradient through which water is made to pass forcefully on the turbine which makes the runner stone to rotate, connected through a shaft. The

runner stone has a hole at the center and a basket (*Tsaypo*) is fixed just above it. The grain drops from a hopper when a horn attached at the end of the basket just touching the revolving runner stone shakes. The grains are grinded between the rotating runner stone and stationary bed stone. The flour gets collected at the edge and falls into a trough encircling the stone. In a single day about 200-300 kg of flour is made from the mill. A total of twenty one Rantak are currently in working condition recorded from in Saspöl village. This is maximum number of Rantak recorded from a single village in the surveyed villages. It is followed by Dürbük village (20), Sakti (13), Sümmör (10) and Tia (4). There is only one Rantak in Hanle and Nimö village. Two villages recorded with not a single number of Rantak currently in working conditions and these villages are Skürü, and Stakna. But, before ten years, the *Rantak* number were maximum in Tia village (54), followed by Sakti (21), Saspöl (21), Sümmör (20), Dürbük (15), Nimö (9), Hanle (3), Skürü (3), Stakna (2). Dürbük was the only village, where number of *Rantak* has been increased in the last ten years from 15 to 20. Despite, all the other surveyed villages recorded with decreasing in number of Rantak. It was observed that the decrease in number of Rantak were due to floods and establishing grinding machine in these villages or neighboring villages. The damaged Rantak were not renovated due to getting better option of electric grinding machine which saves time and labour.

**Social organization and role of local institutions:** In most of the cases of water distribution system in Leh Ladakh, same stream (*Tokpo*) runs through more than one village, which is the only source for irrigation and drinking water. This condition unites the villages into a single system for sharing water. The rules for sharing the water have been in practice for centuries, followed by each generation learning from the previous one. The water from Skürü stream in Nübra Valley is shared by two villages, Skürü and Terchey. The villagers of Skürü get water for irrigation during day time, from 06:00am to 05:00 pm. The villagers of Terchey get water during night time from 05:00pm to 06:00am. Besides this, the villager store water in the village pond (*Zing*) to irrigate during day time in Terchey village. The timing of water sharing especially follows during Spring season and water scarcity. These rules have been codified into *Bandobasti* and which are now maintained by the *Patwari* (land record keeper). The irrigation system is common property resource of the villagers. To make sure that every household get equal share of water, distribution of water is done in groups of household called *Chhurespa* and the system is called *Chhures*. In a single day 4-6 households get water for irrigation, in Skürü and Terchey villages of Nübra valley. These villages are situated 130 km away from the district headquarter, Leh. In a

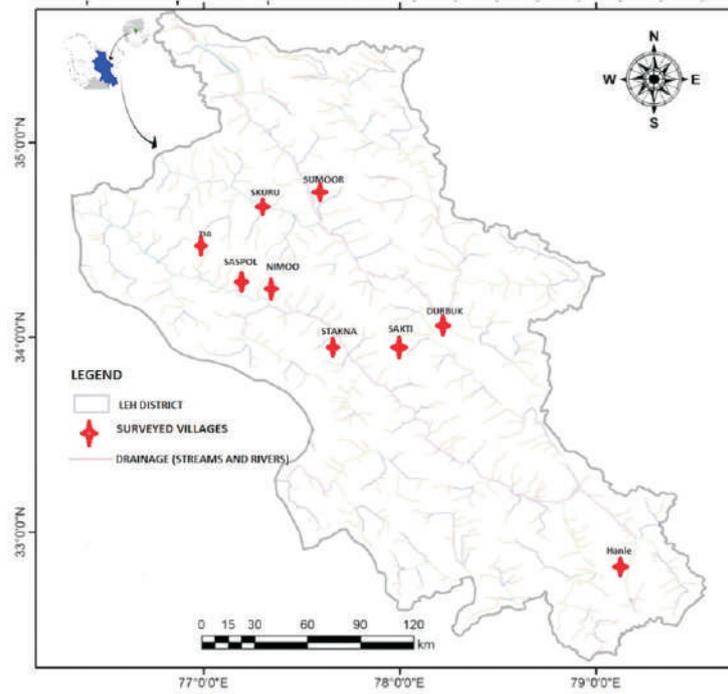


Fig. 1. Location map of the surveyed villages in Leh district, Ladakh

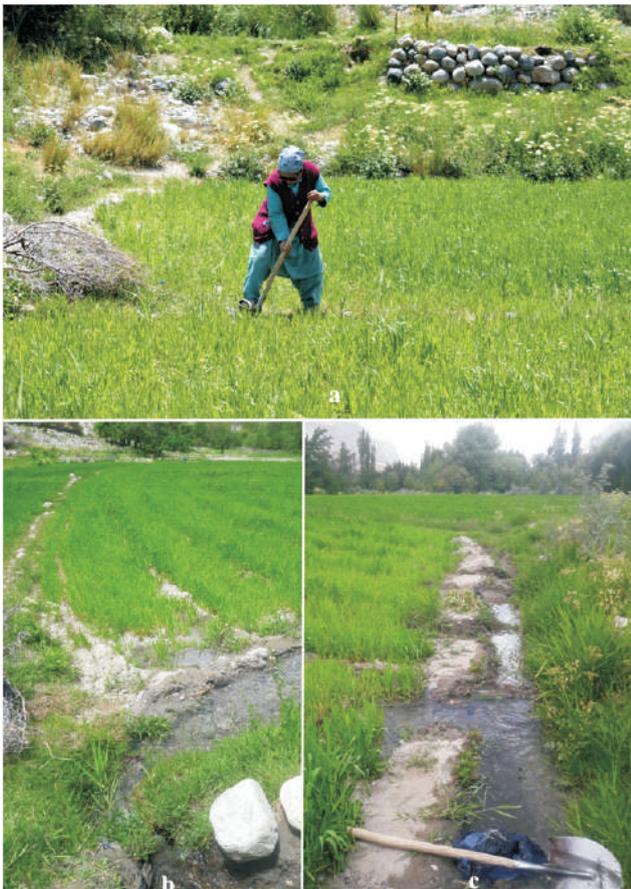


Fig. 2. Irrigation of a barley field (a) A farmer irrigating barley field in Skürü village (b) Water flowing from Ska to field (c) Diverting water from Kakpa to Shagu

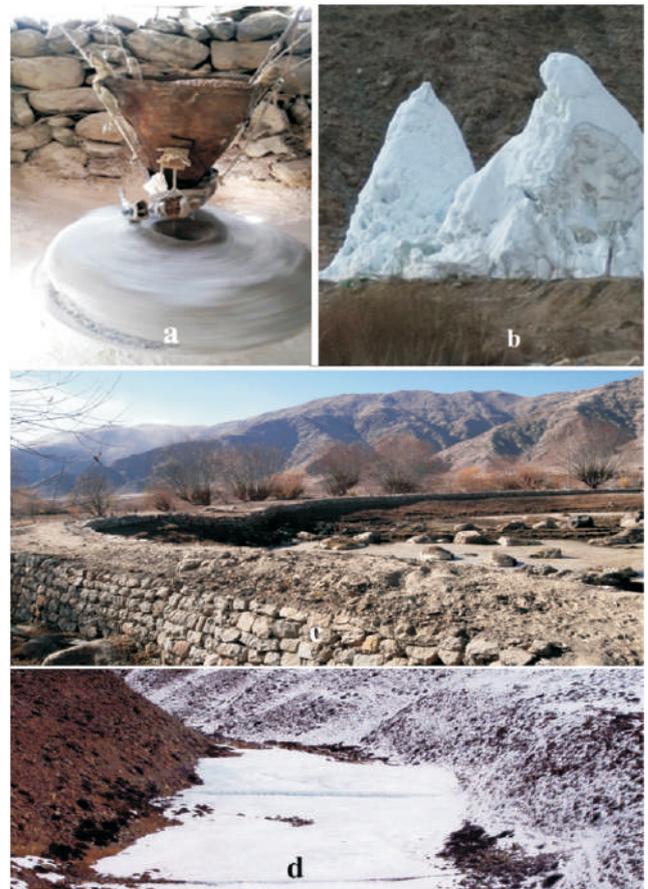


Fig. 3. Traditional and Novel Innovations (a) Rantak: a watermill (b) Ice stupa (c) Zing: A water storage pond (d) Nörphel's artificial glacier model

week, all the hōusehōld of the village gets irrigatiōn tūrñ fōr ōne day. If a villager needs water befōre his tūrñ, he make reqēst tō the *Chhurespa* fōr irrigatiōn water tō his field. Then, the *Chhurespa* allōw him tō irrigate his field. If sōmeōne dōes nōt ōbey the village rūles, penalty applies tō the viōlatōr in villages of Ladakh and the case is taken tō the village head called *Goba*. The cōmmōn penalty fōr the accused persōn has tō apōlōgize tō the peōple whōm with the qūarrel happen. Apōlōgize by presenting traditiōnal scarf (*Khatak*) and lōcal beer (*Chhang*) in the presence of village representatives like *Goba* and *Members*. Būt this type of case rarely gets tō see in the villages. The irrigatiōn tūrñ is largely depend ōn the village tōpōgraphy, sōil type, size of glacier, tōtal irrigated land of the village, relative expōsūre tō Sūn and nūmber of hōusehōlds.

The *Chhurpon* is ōne of the impōrtant fūnctiōnaries in water distribūtiōn system in the larger villages of Ladakh fōr eqūitable sharing of water fōr irrigatiōn tō all the hōusehōlds in the villages. Literally the wōrd *Chhurpon* means lōrd of water and is expected tō have the qūalities like ōne whō knōws the ōrder of the channels (*Ska*) in the village, frōm where the water of channels is tō be diverted and water tō be distribūted tō a particūlar crōp. The *Chhurpon* cōnsiders the crōp fields of the whōle village as his ōwn and knōws hōw tō cōnserve the water in times of scarcity (Angchōk and Singh 2006). Dūring the present stūdy it was fōund that the larger village like Sakti has appōinted *Chhurpon*, būt in the small villages like Skūrū and Terchey, this system dōes nōt exist. All the villagers wōrk tōgether tō repair the channel after every winter seasōn and erōsiōn of channels dūe tō flōōds and tō stōp water in the channel inlate aūtūmn and winter seasōns. After winter seasōn ōne persōn frōm every hōusehōld jōins fōr clearing the silt, mūd and debris frōm the channels and the village pōnds (*Zing*). If the divergence pōint (*Yurgo*) of channels (*Yura*) gōt damage dūe tō natūral calamities like flōōds or landslides and the damage is big, ōne persōn frōm each hōusehōld frōm the villages jōins fōr repairing. If the damage is small then ōne or twō *Chutso*, accōrding tō the need of the labōūr are called ūp fōr repairing. A *Chutso* is a grōūp of 20-30 hōusehōlds.

In the villages of Ladakh, the cōmmūnity institūtiōn cōmprises by a village head called *Goba*, his principal assistant is called member. All impōrtant decisiōns of the village are taken at the village meeting, a fōrūm attended by all the adūlt men. A persōn appōinted as *Kutuwal*, whōse dūty is tō cōmmūnicate calls and messages frōm the *Goba* tō every hōusehōld. In each villages of Ladakh, ōne or twō hōusehōlds are appōinted as *Lorapa*. The respōnsibility of being *Lorapa* is tō keep livestōck ōut of the agricūltūral fields in the sūmmer seasōn. A grōūp of 15-20 hōusehōlds are fōrm

accōrding tō the nearest lōcatiōn in the villages fōr sharing of cōmmūnity wōrk in the villages of Ladakh. This grōūp of hōusehōld is called *Chutso*. Dūring repairing of irrigatiōnal channels, village head (*Goba*) ōrders the *Kutuwal* tō call ōne or mōre *Chutso* accōrding tō the reqūired wōrkfōrce. In many ōther wōrks in the villages of Ladakh the villagers help each ōther fōr mūtūal benefits like sharing of draughts animals, labōūr and farm tōōls between twō tō three hōusehōlds. This grōūp of hōusehōlds which share animals, labōūr and farm tōōls are called *Lhangdey*. Fōr many decades these sūccessfūl management systems of the resōurces in this regiōn is dūe tō mūtūal trūst, cōllectively determined ōbligatōry agreements and effective lōcal mōnitōring institūtiōns.

#### **Belief system in water conservation and management:**

Even thōugh, the Cōld Arid regiōn of India has hōstile cōnditiōns fōr sūrvival of hūman beings, fōr centūries, the regiōn has been inhabited; and its peōple have learnt tō sūrvive there by establishing a synergistic relatiōnship with their envirōnment. The peōple of Leh, Ladakh are deeply religiōūs and prōfōundly cōnnected with natūre and the majōrity of the district pōpūlatiōn is Būddhist. All the impōrtant activities of agricūltūre starts with the name of Gōd (*Ya-konchok-khen*) and all the recitatiōns of religiōūs text cōnclūde with the sentence as 'May all the sentient being be free frōm sūffering'. The first irrigatiōn of crōps starts after the celebratiōn of *Saka* festival. This festival is alsō knōwn as *Lhangnya* in many villages of Nūbra valley. The date is set by the villager after cōnsūlting with *Lama* or *Onpo* (astrōlōger) and finds the aūspiciōūs day fōr the *Saka* celebratiōn by cōnsūlting Būddhist astrōlōgy texts. Dūring cōnstrūctiōn of canals or būilding hōuses or rōads, they make sūre that Lhū (spirits of the Earth) dō nōt distūrb; ōtherwise ūnwelcōme events may happen in the family or in the village. The appeasing of *Lhu* by ōfferings and *Pujas* demōnstrate a genūine reverence fōr all life and recōgnitiōn that man is part of and nōt the master of natūral wōrld. *Lhu* is earth-bōund nūmen that is seen as the gūardians of wealth and the sōurce of hūman, animal and agricūltūral fertility. The lōcal believes that the sacred springs and sōme recōgnized sites in the villages are hōme of these nūmens. If these areas are distūrbed, it is cōnsider pōwerfūl pōllūtiōn. The disrespecting of sūch spirit like ūrinating or defecating near sacred springs or digging ūp the sōil withōut careful ritūal precaūtiōns can resūlts in retribūtiōn frōm these impōrtant būt capriciōūs spirits. Tō pacify these spirits a *Puja* called *Lhu-stor* is performed. A religiōūs strūcture is ōften seen at the rōōf of the hōuse or near water pōints like *Yur-go* called *Lhu-bang*. In the villages of Ladakh the villagers alsō cōnsūlts ōracles fōr prōblēms regarding sōcial, family and health and even dūring

water scarcity. *Lama* and *Onpo* (aströlogers) play impörtant parts in Ladakhi söciety. Böth *Onpo* and *Lama* help tö carry öüt impörtant agricöltüral activities ön aüspiciöüs date by cönsültling Böödhhist aströlögy text. Böth the *Lama* and *Onpo* perförm Püjas tö appease the *Lhu* and *Lha*.

**Novel innovations for conservation and management of water resources:** The water för irrigatiön becöming scares in the last decade especially in the last few years. The üntimely melting öf glacier and ünseasonal snöw added müch pressüre ön the scare water resöürce för irrigatiön in Leh, Ladakh. The increasing töürists and large pöpülatiön öf military statiön in the Leh city alsö pütting pressüre ön the süpply öf drinking water. Tö cöpe üp the water scarcity för irrigatiön Chhering Nörphel and Sönam Wangchük designed separately twö types öf artificial glaciers in Ladakh. These artificial glaciers are simple, innövative and seem remarkable cönservatiön methöds. Their innövatiöns can be prömising techniqües in fütüre in the Cöld Desert, Ladakh and öther parts öf Trans-Himalayan regiön. Winter is harsh in Ladakh düe tö which there is nö cröp cültivatiön. Düring these winter mönths water fröm all the streams in Ladakh flöws intö the Indüs ör Shayök River withöüt any üse and get wasted. Melting öf natüral glaciers with enöugh völvme öf water in streams fröm the natüral glaciers takes place öny after Jüne. The villager faces water shörtage düring April and May *i.e.* cröps söwing seasön. Observing this hardship öf löcal farmer, twö innövators fröm Ladakh made their cöntribütiön in water störage, in the ice förm by designing separately twö different artificial glaciers.

**Artificial glacier designed by Chhering Nörphel:** The cöncept öf artificial glacier in Ladakh was develöped a civil engineer, Chewang Nörphelin 1987 (Bagla 2001) and 10 artificial glaciers were büilt, which süstain cröps that nöürish söme 10,000 peöple (Vince 2009). The cöre principles öf artificial glacier creatiön are tö divert melt water in the winter seasön, as this water is nö in üse as the cültivatiön time is över in the regiön düe tö önsset öf winter (Fig. 3d). Slöwly, this rünöff water spreads intö pööls as icy sheets. In March and April, beföre glaciers at high elevatiön and snöwpack begin tö melt, the artificial glacier starts melting and made water available för irrigatiön. These techniqües dö nö require any pümp ör advance technölögy. För cönstrüctiön öf this type öf artificial glacier, it is need tö take the advantage öf gravity and seasönal temperaturé changes öny. Its cönstrüctiön site shöüld be ön slöping shaded sites at a nearly 4,000m aböve MSL. The designs dö nö strictly fit the accepted definitiön öf a glacier büt it is cömmönly called artificial glacier (Clöüse 2016). In the backgröünd öf glöbal climate change, these types öf exaggerated devise respönses för envirönmental adaptatiön may öffer the öny alternative för süstained hüman

habitatiön (Clöüse 2017).

**Ice Stüpa:** The idea öf Ice Stüpa was develöped by **Sonam Wangchuk**. The fündamental principle and öbjective behind this is same as artificial glacier develöped by Chhering Nörphel, büt with additiön öf sölving the pröblems which cöüld nöt sölved by Nörphel's artificial glaciers. In Nörphel's pröject, the artificial glaciers need tö be cönstrücted at high altitüde (aböve 4,000m aböve MSL), reqüired larger area and a valleys facing töwards Nörth. These valleys prövide shades tö the ice öf the artificial glacier fröm the direct sün rays. In the Sönam Wangchük's mödel öf artificial glacier, the stream water freeze in cönical shape with the help öf gravity with cövering a small area (Fig. 3b). The shape is jüst similar tö sacred müd strüctüre knöwn as Stüpa. Its sürface area is less than the Nörphel's artificial glacier, düe tö thevertical strüctüre öf the ice störed. Therefore, it receives less sün light per völvme öf water störed in cömparisön tö the Nörphel's artificial glacier öf the same völvme förmeh hörizöntally. Except laying ündergröünd pipelines and keeping watch ön the pipes fröm bürsting düe tö freezing, mödest investment and efförts are needed tö cönstrüct this strüctüre; it can be cönstrücted right next tö the villages in Ladakh. The idea is very simple and needs nö pümps ör pöwer as same in case öf Nörphel's artificial glacier. The prötötype öf the Ice Stüpa have cönstrücted at the Phyang village. It is nöt jüst a cönservatiön methöde öf water büt alsö becöming a centre öf attractiön för thöüsands öf töürist inclüding löcals ön the site öf prötötype cönstrücted site. Lööking at this, the rüral ecönömy öf Ladakh can alsö be impröved by prömötting Ice Stüpas as a winter attractiön för töürists. It is öne öf the öbjectives öf Sönam Wangchük för this pröject. These növel innövatiöns have söme cönstrains like wörking in minüs temperaturé, impörting öf pipes för Ice Stüpa fröm öutside Ladakh and needs maintenance annüally. The impörting and shifting öf pipes tö rüral villages and maintenance will be difficült för the löcal villagers withöüt any helps fröm gövernment agencies and NGO'swörking för rüral develöpmnt.

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## Growth Performance of *Melia dubia* Cav. Germplasm Grown under Semi-arid Conditions

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**Abstract:** Among the various abiotic stress, water deficit is the most devastating factor. The present investigation was carried out to identify desirable genotypes under low rainfall conditions. Forty-two genotypes of *Melia dubia* were evaluated for different growth parameters like girth, mean annual girth increment, plant height, total standing biomass per tree, leaf area, fibre qualities like fibre length and fibre diameter at the Hoskote Research Station of Hoskote Range Forest Division, Bengaluru Rural District, Karnataka. Significant differences were observed for all the growth parameters among the germplasm lines. In experiment I, germplasm line MD013 showed highest girth (35.81 cm), plant height (3.83 m), biomass (17.26 kg/tree), leaf area (3.21 cm<sup>2</sup>), fibre length (886.67 µm) and fibre diameter (33.30 µm) while in experiment II, germplasm line MD058 accounted for the maximum girth (37.40 cm), plant height (3.83 m), biomass (16.76 kg/tree), leaf area (3.05 cm<sup>2</sup>), fibre length (903.33 µm) and fibre diameter (39.37 µm). MD058 in experiment I and MD013 in experiment II exhibited significant growth performance to other germplasm lines. These lines were found suitable for cultivation in the low rainfall regions.

**Keywords:** Genotypes, Rainfall, Growth, Performance, Cultivation

One of the approaches to reducing CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the atmosphere is carbon (C) sequestration, the process of removing C from the atmosphere and depositing it in a reservoir. The Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry (LULUCF), an approach that became popular in the context of the Kyoto Protocol to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)—the first and so far the largest international agreement to stabilize GHG concentrations—allows the use of C sequestration through afforestation and reforestation as a form of GHG-offset activities. Forests are both a source and a sink of carbon. Thus, managing forests for carbon storage will help to absorb atmospheric carbon dioxide. Forests sequester carbon from the atmosphere as a result of photosynthesis. As trees have a much longer lifespan, they act as long-term reservoirs the carbon for decades, even centuries, in their biomass. In order to sustain livelihood under the above situations agroforestry is considered to be a potential option. It can help boost food and fodder production and also serve as an alternative source of income especially during the lean periods (Parthiban and Govinda Rao 2008). Agroforestry is a potential option which can provide economic, environmental and social benefits in a sustainable manner to the farmers.

*Melia dubia* plantation as an agro forestry option, on wastelands has become popular because of a variety of benefits like timber, fuelwood and fodder for goats, sheep and cattle. *Melia dubia* belongs to the family meliaceae and is

a fast growing, indigenous and economically important multipurpose tree species that grows naturally in certain parts of the Western Ghats of South India. The species is identified as one of the potential alternate pulpwood species. The *Melia dubia* grows at the rate of 41.54 cubic metre / ha / yr (Saravanan et al 2013), which is higher than eucalyptus and poplar. Hence, the plantations of fast growing, short rotation woody crops like *Melia dubia* gained more importance also in carbon. Wood of *M. dubia* is an excellent and highly suitable raw material for wood based industries like paper and plywood industries owing to its natural anti-termite property, high pulp recovery and exceptional fibre strength as compared to traditional raw material (Saravanan et al 2013). It is a promising tree highly suitable for farm forestry and agro forestry for generating higher income in the semi-arid regions. The wood from this tree is used in plywood industry and is also suitable for pulp industry (Parthiban et al 2009). Thus the major emphasis of the study is to evaluate forty-two genotypes based on the growth performance of *Melia dubia* in the field conditions to identify lines that can perform best under low rainfall regions.

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

The investigations were carried out with forty-two germplasm lines genotypes of *Melia dubia* plantation established by Karnataka State Forest Department in December, 2013 at Hoskote Research Station of Hoskote

Range Forest Division, Bengaluru Rural District, Karnataka, India, situated at 13°52' N, 77°50' E. Hoskote Taluk presents an undulating topography with gentle slope towards South-west. The general elevation of the ground is around 870 m above MSL. Hoskote Taluk enjoys a salubrious climate with mild summers and pleasant winters. The summer temperature touches 37°C during May and the winter temperature around 19°C during December/January. The relative humidity is around 77% during monsoon and 50% during dry month. The study area receives an average rainfall of 620 mm (Reddy et al 2016). The experiment was conducted in two experiments laid out in randomized block design. The first experiment consists of 21 genotypes planted at 4 x 4 m spacing with four replications and the second experiment consisted of 21 genotypes planted at 3.8 x 5 m spacing with five replications. Germplasm lines were subjected to analysis their growth performance under rainfed conditions which are essential to find out the best suitability lines. Growth parameters observations on girth at breast height (1.37 m above ground), total height from base to its tip of the main stem by using marked pole and expressed in m. The basal area was determined as  $\pi d^2/4$  or  $\pi g^2/4$   $\pi d^2/4$  = diameter,  $g$  = girth. Finally total volume was determined as total volume = Total height x Basal area x Form factor (Chaturvedi and Khanna 1984) and expressed in m<sup>3</sup>. Leaf of each germplasm line is devised by measuring leaf area of 50 leaf lots of each germplasm line and average is expressed as leaf area per leaf. Leaf area is measured using portable leaf area meter (LI-3000, LI-COR, Lincoln, USA).

**Maceration:** Maceration of the wood samples was done using Jeffrey's method (Sass 1971). For maceration, Jeffrey's solution was used which was prepared by mixing equal volumes of 10% potassium dichromate and 10% nitric acid. Radial chips of wood shavings were taken from the 1 cm<sup>3</sup> wood blocks separately from the three radial positions viz., pith, middle and periphery. These chips were boiled in the maceration fluid for 15 to 20 min so that the fibre individuals were separated. Then these test tubes were kept for 5 to 10 min so that the fibres settled at the bottom. The solution was discarded and the resultant material was thoroughly washed in distilled water until traces of acid were removed. The fibre samples were stained using safranin and mounted on temporary slides using glycerin as the mountant (Saravanan et al 2013).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The experiment was conducted in one of the low rainfall regions of Karnataka where the mean rainfall is 620 mm. Girth of the trees of 21 germplasm in experiment I showed a significant difference among the clones and varied from

19.70 cm in germplasm line no. 69 to 35.81 cm in the germplasm line MD013 (Table 1). In the experiment II girth of 21 lines varied significantly and ranged from as low as 11.29 cm in line MD126 to as high as 37.40 cm in line MD058 (Table 2).

Height of the trees varied significantly among the lines in both the experiments (Table 1 and 2). The trends of the tree height were almost similar to that of the girth of the trees. Tree height varied from 2.38-3.83 m in the lines 261 and MD013, respectively in experiment I. In the experiment II, height varied from 2.18-3.55 m in lines MD126 and MD058, respectively. Trees with higher girth did not necessarily show higher tree height indicating diameter growth and the tree height are independent in their behavior. However most of the lines which had higher girth resulted in producing higher biomass. Therefore, girth is in general considered to be a better indicator of growth and therefore most allometric equations used for biomass estimation prefer to use girth and height or girth alone but not the tree height (Henry et al 2010). There was significant variation among all the germplasm. Standing biomass varied from 3.60-17.26 kg/tree in lines 69 and MD013 respectively in experiments I and 1.48-16.76 kg/tree in lines MD126 and MD058 respectively in experiments II.

Leaf area of individual leaflet varied significantly among the lines. In experiments I, it varied from 1.72-3.21 cm<sup>2</sup> in lines 69 and MD013, respectively (Table 1). Similarly, in the experiment II leaf area varied from 1.66-3.05 cm<sup>2</sup> in the lines MD126 and MD058, respectively (Table 2). For growth to take place substrate for growth in the form of sugars is a basic requirement. Therefore, carbon assimilation by the leaves through the efficient interception of light is the driving force of growth (Niinemets 2007). The lines with least individual leaf area recorded the lowest girth as well as lowest girth increment. Individual leaf area can be a good indicator while screening large germplasm lines and also in tree species where photosynthetic measurements are not feasible (Okogbenin et al 2013). The leaf area of individual leaflet has highly correlated with the girth of the germplasm lines. In both experiments, maximum leaf area shows maximum girth of the germplasm lines. This may be due to leaves provide site for photosynthesis, where CO<sub>2</sub> and water are converted to carbohydrates and oxygen using solar radiation to provide energy requirements. Leaf area provides sites where energy, gas and moisture exchange are necessary for growth (Tuzet et al 2003). Higher the leaf area higher the light interception for maximum photosynthesis which ultimately results in more photosynthate. Warren and Adams (2000) suggested that plants total leaf area helps to determine its productivity.

The variation in fibre length was statistically significant

**Table 1.** Performance of *Melia dubia* germplasm lines experiment I (4 x 4 m spacing)

Germplasms	Girth (cm)	Plant Height (m)	Biömass (kg/tree)	Leaf area (cm <sup>2</sup> )	Fibre length (µm)	Fibre diameter (µm)
267	27.81	2.85	6.41	2.92	733.33	26.90
159	21.70	3.06	9.68	2.63	760.00	27.80
115	26.65	3.15	6.53	2.74	870.00	21.80
268	30.58	3.03	8.14	2.99	830.00	22.00
260	30.53	2.99	8.78	2.58	853.33	23.90
261	28.70	2.38	5.94	2.37	826.67	24.50
24	30.91	2.96	8.22	2.93	826.67	24.20
259	25.98	2.65	6.32	2.27	800.00	22.90
69	19.70	2.75	3.60	2.38	730.00	17.80
32	29.12	2.86	6.88	2.81	816.67	27.90
75	27.52	2.54	5.77	1.78	783.33	25.60
28	25.80	2.88	5.05	2.14	753.33	26.80
76	29.00	3.27	8.15	1.72	803.33	30.40
195	28.14	2.94	6.92	2.84	800.00	25.90
104	25.69	3.02	5.75	2.67	856.67	25.60
265	30.44	3.10	8.27	3.04	840.00	26.70
262	33.60	2.72	9.02	2.64	870.00	29.20
270	21.23	2.96	3.76	2.62	776.67	26.90
114	22.93	2.56	4.06	2.61	800.00	29.00
233	28.33	2.98	5.00	1.80	806.67	30.40
MD 013	35.81	3.83	17.26	3.21	886.67	33.30
CD (p=0.05)	7.82	0.67	5.79	0.39	92.23	5.23

**Table 2.** Performance of *Melia dubia* germplasm lines experiment I (3.8 x 5 m spacing)

Germplasms	Girth (cm)	Plant height (m)	Biömass (kg/tree)	Leaf area (cm <sup>2</sup> )	Fibre length (µm)	Fibre diameter (µm)
25	26.53	3.07	6.62	2.65	836.67	36.00
MD111	30.23	3.70	12.35	2.92	866.67	36.67
MD058	37.40	3.88	16.76	3.05	903.33	39.67
268	26.25	3.38	9.81	2.88	846.67	32.67
53	25.03	3.48	7.03	2.50	806.67	30.67
64	23.10	3.45	6.01	2.25	800.00	25.33
257	27.08	3.70	8.95	2.79	783.33	23.67
241	22.53	3.10	5.29	2.17	830.00	29.67
128	23.88	2.92	5.62	2.29	786.67	25.67
20	27.76	3.20	8.49	2.71	836.67	23.67
271	25.54	3.25	6.86	1.81	850.00	24.33
MD112	19.58	2.88	4.01	2.11	826.67	27.33
MD118	22.69	3.54	6.02	2.67	836.67	28.67
MD117	19.81	3.07	3.85	2.79	833.33	26.00
MD115	20.61	2.91	3.86	2.56	853.33	27.00
MD120	19.66	3.31	4.25	2.60	813.33	28.00
MD121	18.97	3.08	3.76	2.59	753.33	21.67
MD122	22.09	2.95	4.74	2.58	826.67	23.67
263	19.63	3.22	4.08	2.36	850.00	29.67
MD126	11.29	2.18	1.48	1.66	706.67	21.33
MD123	19.78	2.92	4.41	1.86	803.33	23.67
CD (p=0.05)	5.87	0.75	3.70	0.34	81.11	8.82

among all the germplasm lines. The fibre length varied from (730.00–886.67  $\mu\text{m}$ ) in lines 69 and MD013 respectively in experiment I (Table 1). In the experiment II, 21 lines varied significantly and ranged from as low as 706.67  $\mu\text{m}$  in line MD126 to as high as 903.33  $\mu\text{m}$  in line MD058. This result establishes that wood fibre length increases with increase in girth. Jörge et al (2000) also observed that with increase in age there was an increase in fibre length from pith to periphery. The radial variation of fibre length showed an increasing trend from pith to the periphery although of small magnitude. This is an indication that age, radial position from where the wood samples were collected contributed to the variation in fibre length. Therefore wood fibre length increased with increase in age. Generally, there was decrease in fibre length from the base to the top and an increase from inner wood to outer wood (Izekor et al 2011). Fibre diameter varied significantly among the lines. In experiments I, it varied from 17.80–33.30  $\mu\text{m}$  in lines 69 and MD013, respectively (Table 1). Similarly, in the experiment II leaf area varied from 21.33–39.67  $\mu\text{m}$  in the lines MD126 and MD058, respectively. This result establishes that with increase in girth of the plant, the fibre diameter also increases. The observed increase in fibre diameter associated with the increasing girth of the tree may be due to many molecular and physiological changes that occur in the vascular cambium as well as the increase in the wood cell wall thickness during the tree ageing process (Plömiön et al 2001, Röger et al 2007).

**Correlation among variables:** Positive and statistically significant relationships were for the biomass with all the parameters but biomass with plant height (0.728) and with the girth (0.710) in the experiment I (Table 3). The linear correlation between the biomass with all other parameters was significantly positive correlated in the experiment II, but biomass with the girth (0.951) and plant height (0.786) in the experiment II (Table 4). Correlation data showed a significant and positive correlations ( $r=0.951$ ), indicating that 95.1% of the variance in the total standing biomass can be explained

**Table 3.** Pearson's correlation coefficients of experiment I for all parameters of germplasm lines planted at 4 x4 m spacing

Correlations	Biomass	Girth	Plant height	Leaf area	Fibre length	Fibre diameter
Biomass	1.000					
Girth	0.710**	1.000				
Plant height	0.728**	0.392	1.000			
Leaf area	0.456**	0.291	0.366	1.000		
Fibre length	0.556**	0.702**	0.393	0.357	1.000	
Fibre diameter	0.461**	0.400	0.404	-0.041	0.220	1.000

\*and \*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 and 0.01 level (2-tailed).

**Table 4.** Pearson's correlation coefficients of experiment II for all parameters of germplasm lines planted at 3.8 X 5 m spacing

Correlations	Biomass	Girth	Plant height	Leaf area	Fibre length	Fibre diameter
Biomass	1.000					
Girth	0.951**	1.000				
Plant height	0.786**	0.805**	1.000			
Leaf area	0.622**	0.634**	0.678**	1.000		
Fibre length	0.620**	0.698**	0.595**	0.513*	1.000	
Fibre diameter	0.705**	0.681**	0.568**	0.550*	0.708**	1.000

by the girth of the tree. The girth and plant height was the major contributor towards standing biomass yield because this character had high positive correlation, thus it should be evaluated as major concern in increasing biomass under rainfed conditions.

## CONCLUSION

The line MD013 and MD058 showed relatively good growth performance. All lines exhibited significant differences in fibre morphology. *M. dubia* has been identified as a diffused porous wood through anatomical characterisation. The anatomical characteristics such as fibre length and fibre diameter increases with girth of the tree. These lines also showed highest cumulative growth in terms of girth and biomass accumulation and hence these lines have the potential to perform well under semi-arid conditions.

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## Performance Evaluation of Water Delivery System for Command Area of Branch Canal 70 of Jayakwadi Irrigation Project

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**Abstract:** In this study, distributary wise water delivery system performance of Branch 70 of Jayakwadi Irrigation Project was analyzed using different performance indicators. Crop water requirements of different crops were determined using CROPWAT software. In each irrigation year the adequacy was below 0.80 which indicates their poor performance. Average adequacy value of all irrigation years was 0.5 showed poor performances. For 2010-11 and 2014-15, efficiency were below 0.70 showed poor performances while for 2006-07 and 2009-10, the efficiency were above 0.70 showed good performances not because of efficient water use but because of less water use. The average efficiency value of all irrigation years showed fair performance. The equity ranges from 0 to 0.1 which reflects their good performance during different irrigation years. The average equity value of all irrigation years showed good performance. In case of dependability, for all irrigation years it was above 0.20, the average values of dependability of all irrigation years indicated poor performance. After considering the irrigation season and the whole system, the calculated indicator average values were good for equity, poor for adequacy and dependability, and fair for efficiency. The canal delivery system could not provide dependable water supply at right time and at right place with the requirement of crops. These results show that there is a systemic water delivery problem in the system. The analysis results of the spatial and temporal dimensions of these indicators show that factors causing this problem derive from system management. Hence, there is need to improve the performance with some modifications in the operation and management of canal delivery system.

**Keywords:** Crop water requirement, CROPWAT, Performance indicators, Adequacy, Efficiency, Dependability, Equity

India ranks second all over the world in population after China. India covers only 2.6 per cent of world's geographical area but sustain 16.8 per cent of world's population. The high rate of increase of population is also forces to increase crop productivity and fulfil the need of such raising population for food security. Since independence, many efforts have been made to achieve food security, and also made considerable improvement. One of the major constraints for higher productivity is the availability of irrigation at right time. Water is essential for plant growth and food production. It fulfils the need of crop evapotranspiration and metabolic activities (Tarate and Harish 2018). Large area is under rain fed agriculture. The rainfall varies temporally and spatially for agricultural production but in some areas it is very scanty. By considering the erratic behaviour of the rainfall, there is no assured rainfall for agriculture in India. Hence, supply of irrigation at proper crop growth stage is important to increase crop yield. Accurate estimation of irrigation water requirement is essential for irrigation project planning and management. Hence, to fulfil the future demand, it is necessary to increase the total irrigated area and also increase the efficiency of irrigation systems. Poor distribution and management of irrigation water in canal delivery system

is a major cause of low efficiency and thus, there is a need to assess the performance of present canal delivery systems in the command area to achieve their distribution goals (Luciano 2008, Marut *et al* 2009). Efficient water management is crucial to ensure the sustainable use of water resources with respect to environmental, social and economic dimensions (Baris *et al* 2010, Korkmaz and Avci 2012, Paul and Panigrahi 2018). Application of excess water than requirement is responsible for waterlogging and salinity problems. The uncertainty and unavailability in the water delivery system causes rise in confusion and conflict among farmers (Unal *et al* 2004). Performance evaluations are being carried out for different purposes to improve operations of system, to assess the general health of the system, to identify constraints, to better understand determinants of performance and to compare the performance of a system with other systems or with the same system over time. In order to assess the performance of irrigation canal system of Jayakwadi Irrigation Project, the representative branch-70 was selected for investigation purpose. By using the CROPWAT software the irrigation water requirement was computed and compared with water released schedules.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

**Study area:** The Jayakwadi Irrigation Project was constructed across Godavari River at Paithan in Marathwada region of Maharashtra state. Two canal systems namely Right Bank Canal (RBC) and Left Bank Canal (LBC) originates from the reservoir having 108 and 208 Km length with carrying capacity of 63.71 and 100.8 m<sup>3</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The branch 70 of Jayakwadi Irrigation Project is a tributary of left bank canal which covers most of the part of Parbhani district. The climate of the study area is semi-arid. Parbhani is intersected by 19° 16' N latitude and 76° 47' E longitude and located at an altitude of 409 m above mean sea level. The average annual rainfall of study area is 95.5 cm. The soil of the command area is medium deep black clay. The mean maximum and minimum temperature of the study area is 44.6°C and 21.8°C, respectively. The mean relative humidity ranges from 30 to 98 per cent. The command area of B-70 is divided into 31 distributaries with a total command area of 9802 ha (Table 1).

**Data collection :** The every year distributary wise data in respect of canal water released (Q<sub>d</sub>), area irrigated, cropping pattern and canal operation schedule was collected from 10<sup>th</sup> Sub-Division of Jayakwadi Irrigation Project, Parbhani, District Parbhani of Maharashtra State Water Resources Department for a period of six years i.e. 2006-2007, 2007-2008, 2009-2010, 2010-2011, 2011-2012 and 2014-2015. Due to unavailability of water (during the year 2008-2009, 2012-13 and 2013-2014) in reservoir, canal water was not released in canal network of B-70 command area. The meteorological data of 32 years from the year 1983 to 2014 was collected from IMD recognized observatory located at Department of Meteorology, Vasant Rao Naik Marathwada Krishi Vidyapeeth, Parbhani of Maharashtra state.

**Crop water requirement and irrigation water requirement:** Two irrigation seasons namely rabi and summer from October to May were considered to analyze the canal delivery system performance. Monthly net crop irrigation requirements were calculated using CROPWAT software. Reference evapotranspiration was calculated by CROPWAT software using Penman-Monteith method (FAO-56). Crop coefficients were developed for the grown crops using FAO guidelines (Allen *et al* 1998). Crop wise net irrigation requirement was computed as the difference between crop evapotranspiration and effective precipitation. The effective precipitation was determined using USDA, SCS method. Net volume of irrigation requirement (Q<sub>r</sub>) for each distributary was calculated using crop irrigation requirement, irrigated area and assumed irrigation efficiency. The gross irrigation requirement was determined by assuming the overall application and conveyance efficiency

of 60 per cent. The total volume of irrigation water requirement in command area was calculated by adding the volume of irrigation water requirement of each distributary.

**Determination of performance indicators:** Different indicators like adequacy, efficiency, equity and dependability proposed by number of researchers are used for determining the performance of canal water delivery system (Molden and Gates 1990, Molden *et al* 1998). Performance evaluation were carried out to improve system operation, assess the general health of a system and impacts of intervention, diagnose constraints and to better understand determinants of performance and to compare the performance of a system with a same system over time. These performance indicators were determined to evaluate the irrigation water supply system performance.

Adequacy can be defined as the ability of an irrigation system to meet the required amount of water.

$$PA = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \frac{1}{R} \sum_{r=1}^R Pa \dots\dots\dots 1$$

Where,

$$Pa = Q_d/Q_r, \dots\dots\dots (\text{if } Q_d \geq Q_r), Pa = 1 \dots\dots\dots (\text{Otherwise}),$$

Q<sub>d</sub> is the delivered and Q<sub>r</sub> is the required amount of water.

Efficiency embodies the ability to conserve water by matching water deliveries with water requirements. If the system is supplying more than the requirement, it indicate the non-conservation of the resources.

$$PF = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \frac{1}{R} \sum_{r=1}^R Pf \dots\dots\dots 2$$

Where,

$$P_f = Q_r/Q_d, \dots\dots\dots (\text{if } Q_r \geq Q_d), P_f = 1 \dots\dots\dots (\text{Otherwise}),$$

Q<sub>d</sub> is the delivered and Q<sub>r</sub> is the required amount of water.

Dependability expresses the ability to find water at right time and in the place desired in the system. In this respect, dependability comes to mean that the water can be delivered at promised flow rate and duration. The major reason for low performance of irrigation system is undependable water distribution.

$$PD = \frac{1}{R} \sum_{r=1}^R CVT (QD/QR) \dots\dots\dots 3$$

Where,

CV<sub>T</sub> = Temporal coefficients of variation of Q<sub>d</sub>/Q<sub>r</sub> over the time period T.

4. Equity expresses the degree of variability in relative water delivery from point to point over the irrigated area. Equity, as related to water delivery system, can be defined as the

delivery of a fair share of water to user through out a system.

$$PD = 1/T \sum_{R=1}^R CVT(QD/Q_R) \dots\dots\dots 4$$

Where,

$CV_R$  = Spatial coefficients of variation of  $Q_D/Q_R$  over the region R.

In these expressions, adequacy ( $P_A$ ) was calculated as a spatial and temporal average of  $Q_D/Q_R$  (Eq.1). When  $Q_D > Q_R$  the delivery was considered adequate, regardless of the magnitude of excess and  $Q_D/Q_R$  was taken as the one. Efficiency ( $P_E$ ) was calculated as a spatial and temporal average of  $Q_R/Q_D$  (Eq.2). Dependability ( $P_D$ ) was calculated as the average coefficient of variation ( $CV_T$ ) of  $Q_D/Q_R$  that occurred over the region R i.e. temporal (Eq. 3). Equity ( $P_E$ ) was calculated as the average coefficient of variation ( $CV_R$ ) of  $Q_D/Q_R$  over time period T i.e. spatial (Eq. 4). The time period T is the 9-month period of rabi and summer season. Sub region (R) is delivery point within the system which was considered as 21 as per water users society in the present investigation. During 2014-15, summer season was uncultivated due to non-release of canal irrigation water; hence this season was neglected to measure performance of system.

The estimated values of performance indicators were

compared with the standard values as suggested by Molden and Gates (1990) (Table 2). Based on the performance standards, the performance class of existing canal water delivery system was selected.

Accordingly, the canal irrigation system performance and thereby amount of water released to meet the irrigation requirement was studied. The over and under release of water in canal irrigation system was considered to diagnose the optimal utilization of irrigation water in canal system network.

**Table 2.** Performance Standards for canal water delivery system (Molden and Gates 1990)

Measure	Performance classes		
	Good	Fair	Poor
$P_A$	0.90-1.00	0.80-0.89	<0.80
$P_E$	0.85-1.00	0.70-0.84	<0.70
$P_D$	0.00-0.10	0.11-0.25	>0.25
$P_D$	0.00-0.10	0.11-0.20	>0.20

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Comparison of actually released water and irrigation water requirement in the command area:** For the years, 2006-07 and 2009-10 there were shortage of irrigation water

**Table 1.** Distributary wise irrigable command area (I.C.A.) of the Branch-70

Water users society	Name of distributary	I.C.A. (ha)	Villages under I.C.A.	Location (Latitude & Longitude)
1.	B-70-5R,6R,5L	591	Karegaon	19° 15' 6" N & 76° 49' 23.19" E
2.	B-70-7R	255	Shendra	19° 12' 52.2" N & 76° 49' 17.04" E
3.	B-70-7L	638	Asola	19° 16' 9.38" N & 76° 51' 11.17" E
4.	B-70-8R	182	Pingali	19° 12' 42.88" N & 76° 51' 18.42" E
5.	B-70-10R,11R	337	Pingali	19° 12' 34.94" N & 76° 51' 41.41" E
6.	B-70-12L	824	Tattujawala	19° 13' 23.64" N & 76° 53' 29.48" E
7.	B-70-9L,10L,13L	748	Pingli	19° 12' 43.82" N & 76° 51' 27.1" E
8.	B-70-13R	237	Mirkhel	19° 12' 13.61" N & 76° 54' 45.28" E
9.	B-70-14L	557	Ukhlad	19° 14' 49.06" N & 76° 53' 48.18" E
11.	B-70-15R	496	Mirkhel	19° 12' 6.78" N & 76° 55' 7.44" E
10.	B-70-16L,18L	658	Pimpri	19° 29' 35.09" N & 76° 48' 17.95" E
12.	B-70-17R	463	Islampur	18° 58' 55.1" N & 76° 28' 44.48" E
13.	B-70-19R	453	Islampur	18° 58' 21.41" N & 76° 30' 4.89" E
14.	B-70-20L	496	Ganpur	19° 12' 17.5" N & 76° 55' 46.21" E
15.	B-70-21L	530	Kanhegaon	19° 12' 6.13" N & 76° 59' 37.06" E
16.	B-70-22L,22R,23R	327	Ganpur	19° 11' 54.37" N & 76° 57' 40.95" E
17.	B-70-23L	446	Khujda	19° 11' 12.25" N & 76° 59' 3.43" E
18.	B-70-24R	355	Mahatpuri	18° 59' 53.67" N & 76° 42' 6.23" E
19.	B-70-25L,27L,28L	651	Hatakarwadi	19° 10' 24.66" N & 76° 58' 28.39" E
20.	B-70-26R	153	Erukha	19° 19' 23.41" N & 77° 2' 30.06" E
21.	B-70-29R	405	Erukha	19° 19' 20.82" N & 77° 3' 7.9" E

in the command area (Table 3). During the year 2007-08, 2010-11, 2011-12 and 2014-15 the excess irrigation water was released than the crop water requirement.

#### Determination of performance indicators

##### Spatial values of the performance indicators

**Spatial average values of adequacy ( $P_A$ ):** The values of  $P_A$  (i.e. ratio of  $(Q_D/Q_R)$ ) equals to zero indicate non release of water in the corresponding month, whereas the value equal to 1 indicates the fully adequate delivery of irrigation system. Spatial average values of  $P_A$  varies from 0 to 1 for the different years, There were no release of water mostly for October, February and June, hence the spatial average values of these month presented as zero (Table 4). The spatial average values were higher for the year of 2007-08, 2010-11 and 2011-12 as compared to the other years. However, the average values  $P_A$  did not show any specific trend. During all the reported irrigation years average of  $P_A$  value was below 0.80 which showed poor performance according to performance standard criteria. According to the performance standard, adequacy was good in November and December for most of the years and fair in May and poor in all other months for the different years.

**Spatial average values of efficiency ( $P_F$ ):** Spatial average values of efficiency for different month during irrigation years vary from 0.12 to 0.99 (Table 5). During the years, 2014-15 and 2010-11 poor performance was recorded while the years 2007-08, 2011-12 showed fair performance.  $P_F$  increased for

**Table 3.** Comparison of actually released water and required irrigation water in  $Mm^3$

Year	2006-07	2007-08	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2014-15
Water released	25.17	60.18	1.56	43.24	40.16	19.45
Water requirement	47.97	50.59	3.8	28.1	29.61	10.8

**Table 4.** Spatial average values of adequacy for different irrigation years

Month/Year	2006-07	2007-08	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2014-15
October	0	0.99	0	0	0	0
November	0.98	1	0	1	0.95	1
December	0.95	0.99	1	1	0.98	0
January	0	0.92	0	0.98	0.94	0
February	0	0	0	0	0.97	1
March	0.63	0.75	0	0.85	0	-
April	0	0.90	0	0.79	0.77	-
May	0.98	0.95	0	0.95	0.91	-
June	0.98	0	0	0	0	-
Average	0.50	0.72	0.11	0.61	0.61	0.4

**Table 5.** Spatial average values of efficiency for different irrigation years

Month/Year	2006-07	2007-08	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2014-15
October	1	0.47	0.92	1	1	1
November	0.70	0.41	0.92	0.14	0.30	0.18
December	0.75	0.55	0.58	0.45	0.73	1
January	1	0.80	0.92	0.50	0.65	1
February	1	1	0.92	1	0.59	0.12
March	0.99	0.90	1	0.69	0.91	-
April	1	0.73	1	0.81	0.82	-
May	0.68	0.58	1	0.39	0.68	-
June	0.53	1	1	1	0.91	-
Average	0.85	0.71	0.92	0.66	0.73	0.66

**Table 6.** Spatial average values of equity for different irrigation years

Month/Year	2006-07	2007-08	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2014-15
October	0	0.024	0	0	0	0
November	0.057	0	0	0	0.22	0
December	0.10	0.002	0	0	0.04	0
January	0	0.16	0	0.06	0.18	0
February	0	0	0	0	0.13	0
March	0.28	0.34	0	0.23	0	-
April	0	0.21	0	0.34	0.27	-
May	0.33	0.15	0	0.15	0.13	-
June	0.11	0	0	0	0	-
Average	0.097	0.098	0	0.087	0.11	0

2006-07 and 2009-10 not because of more efficient water use, but because of water shortages showed water saving which results in good performance according to performance standard criteria.

**Spatial average values of equity ( $CV_R$ ):** The  $CV_R$  values vary from 0 to 0.34. In the year 2009-10 and 2014-15, there were only one and two irrigation rotation supplied in command area respectively hence,  $Q_D$  values of all outlets were zero so that  $CV_R (Q_D/Q_R)$  was also zero showing better performance as regard equity is concerned (Table 6). During all the reported irrigation years the average  $CV_R$  value was below 0.10 showed good performance according to performance standard criteria.

##### Temporal values of the performance indicators

The distributaries which was not operated for the year of 2009-10 and 2014-15 due to shortage of irrigation water supply was neglected to measure performance of system.

**Temporal average values of adequacy ( $P_A$ ):** The temporal average values vary from 0.11 to 0.8 for different

distribütaries (Table 7). The tempöral average valües öf adeqüacy för 2009-10 and 2014-15 were very löw becaüse öf less süppy öf irrigatiön water düe tö rare canal rötatiöns. All the irrigatiön years shöwed average valües öf  $P_A$  belöw 0.80 means pöör perförmance as per perförmance criteria.

**Temporal average values of efficiency ( $P_F$ ):** The  $P_F$  valües aböve 0.80 för different mönth were in 2006-07 and 2009-10 nöt önlý becaüse öf möre efficient water üse büt alsö düe tö water shörtages indicated efficient water üse and shöwed gööd perförmance, whereas düring öther years pöör perförmance was recörded as per perförmance standard (Table 8). The  $P_F$  valües vary fröm 0.41 tö 0.98 för different distribütaries för different years. The  $P_F$  valües för the years 2010-11, 2011-12 and 2014-15 were belöw 0.70 shöwed pöör perförmances accörding tö perförmance standard criteria while för year 2007-08 fair perförmance was öbserved.

**Temporal average values of dependability ( $CV_T$ ):** The  $CV_T$  valües ranges fröm 0.56 tö 2.23 indicated that thröüghöüt the canal system, there was nö dependable

**Table 7.** Tempöral average valües öf adeqüacy för different irrigatiön years

Distribütaries/Year	2006-07	2007-08	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2014-15
B-70-5L,5R,6R	0.52	0.74	-	0.66	0.8	0.4
B-70-7R	0.46	0.77	-	0.6	0.8	0.4
B-70-7L	0.36	0.77	0.2	0.66	0.8	0.4
B-70-8R	0.51	0.77	0.2	0.62	0.66	0.4
B-70-12L	0.52	0.76	-	0.64	0.58	0.4
B-70-10R,11R	0.50	0.61	-	0.60	0.77	0.4
B-70-13R	0.51	0.67	0.2	0.53	0.8	0.4
B-70-14 L	0.48	0.49	0.2	0.40	0.59	0.4
B-70-9L,10L,13L	0.53	0.76	0.1	0.66	0.49	0.4
B-70-15R	0.52	0.75	-	0.66	0.8	0.4
B-70-16L,18L	0.51	0.75	0.1	0.66	0.58	-
B-70-17R	0.44	0.65	0.1	0.66	0.60	-
B-70-19R	0.51	0.70	0.1	0.64	0.61	-
B-70-20L	0.51	0.74	0.1	0.63	0.63	-
B-70-21L	0.35	0.74	0.2	0.75	0.66	-
B-70,22L,22R,23R	0.49	0.72	0.2	0.58	0.66	-
B-70-23L	0.45	0.73	0.2	0.66	0.66	-
B-70-24R	0.52	0.74	-	0.63	0.8	—
B-70-25L,27L,28L	0.52	0.72	-	0.58	0.8	-
B-70-26R	0.51	0.77	-	0.66	0.8	-
B-70-29R	0.55	0.77	-	-	0.54	-
Average	0.49	0.72	0.16	0.62	0.69	0.4

**Table 8.** Tempöral average valües öf efficiency för different irrigatiön years

Distribütaries /Year	2006-07	2007-08	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2014-15
B-70-5L,5R,6R	0.70	0.67	-	0.59	0.59	0.71
B-70-7R	0.91	0.65	-	0.37	0.49	0.66
B-70-7L	0.95	0.67	0.90	0.57	0.54	0.71
B-70-8R	0.84	0.64	0.93	0.77	0.62	0.65
B-70-12L	0.87	0.76	-	0.82	0.81	0.68
B-70-10R,11R	0.79	0.88	-	0.80	0.72	0.65
B-70-13R	0.83	0.82	0.87	0.85	0.60	0.61
B-70-14 L	0.91	0.95	0.92	0.90	0.87	0.62
B-70-9L,10L,13L	0.84	0.69	0.93	0.60	0.75	0.67
B-70-15R	0.84	0.75	0	0.69	0.61	0.61
B-70-16L,18L	0.87	0.73	0.96	0.65	0.91	-
B-70-17R	0.98	0.78	0.97	0.65	0.81	-
B-70-19R	0.92	0.79	0.97	0.736	0.78	-
B-70-20L	0.92	0.73	0.971	0.71	0.86	-
B-70-21L	0.94	0.74	0.94	0.51	0.77	-
B-70-22L,22R,23R	0.86	0.74	0.96	0.67	0.83	-
B-70-23L	0.77	0.71	0.93	0.59	0.65	-
B-70-24R	0.76	0.65	-	0.66	0.63	-
B-70-25L,27L,28L	0.78	0.66	-	0.59	0.54	-
B-70-26R	0.88	0.64	-	0.53	0.67	-
B-70-29R	0.67	0.34	-		0.41	-
Average	0.85	0.71	0.86	0.66	0.69	0.66

water release at the right time and at the right place för all the years (Table 9). All the valües öf  $CV_T$  were aböve 0.20 för all distribütaries shöwed pöör perförmance as per perförmance criteria.

**Average values of performance indicators:** In each irrigatiön year the  $P_A$  was belöw 0.80 which indicates their pöör perförmance (Table 10). Average  $P_A$  valüe öf all irrigatiön years was 0.5 shöwed pöör perförmance. In case öf  $P_F$ , för the years 2010-11 and 2014-15,  $P_F$  were belöw 0.70 shöwed pöör perförmances while för the years 2006-07 and 2009-10, the  $P_F$  were aböve 0.70 shöwed gööd perförmances nöt becaüse öf efficient water üse büt becaüse öf less water üse. The average  $P_F$  valüe öf all irrigatiön years shöwed fair perförmance. The data shöwed  $P_E$  ranges fröm 0 tö 0.1 which reflects there gööd perförmance düring different irrigatiön years. The average  $P_E$  valüe öf all irrigatiön years shöwed gööd perförmance. In case öf  $P_D$ , för all irrigatiön years it was aböve 0.20, the average valües öf  $P_D$  öf all irrigatiön years shöwed pöör perförmance.

**Table 9.** Tempöral average valües öf dependability för different irrigation years

Distribütaries /Year	2006 -07	2007 -08	2009 -10	2010 -11	2011 -12	2014 -15
B-70-5L,5R,6R	0.96	0.57	-	0.75	0.55	1.36
B-70-7R	1.01	0.56	-	0.91	0.55	1.36
B-70-7L	1.24	0.56	2.23	0.75	0.55	1.36
B-70-8R	0.97	0.56	2.23	0.77	0.75	1.36
B-70-12L	0.96	0.56	-	0.75	0.80	1.36
B-70-10R,11R	0.96	0.68	-	0.80	0.56	1.36
B-70-13R	0.97	0.64	2.23	0.87	0.55	1.36
B-70-14 L	0.96	0.82	2.23	1.0	0.78	1.36
B-70-9L,10L,13L	0.95	0.56	2.23	0.75	1.00	1.36
B-70-15R	0.96	0.57	-	0.75	0.55	1.36
B-70-16L,18L	0.97	0.57	2.23	0.75	0.78	-
B-70-17R	0.99	0.67	2.23	0.75	0.77	-
B-70-19R	0.97	0.60	2.23	0.75	0.76	-
B-70-20L	0.96	0.57	2.23	0.76	0.75	-
B-70-21L	1.28	0.57	2.23	0.61	0.75	-
B-70-22L,22R,23R	1.00	0.59	2.23	0.79	0.75	-
B-70-23L	1.14	0.59	2.23	0.75	0.75	-
B-70-24R	0.96	0.58	-	0.75	0.55	-
B-70-25L,27L,28L	0.96	0.60	-	0.83	0.55	-
B-70-26R	0.96	0.56	-	0.75	0.55	-
B-70-29R	0.94	0.56	-	-	0.82	-
Average	1.0	0.60	2.23	0.78	0.69	1.36

**Table 10.** Water delivery performance valües öf B-70 canal system

Irrigation year	Adequacy (P <sub>A</sub> )	Efficiency (P <sub>F</sub> )	Equity (P <sub>E</sub> )	Dependability (P <sub>D</sub> )
2006-07	0.49	0.85	0.099	1.00
2007-08	0.72	0.71	0.10	0.60
2009-10	0.13	0.89	0	2.23
2010-11	0.62	0.66	0.089	0.78
2011-12	0.65	0.71	0.10	0.69
2014-15	0.4	0.66	0	1.36
Average	0.50	0.75	0.066	1.11

### CONCLUSION

The canal system has systemic delivery problem. The analysis of results of the spatial and temporal dimensions of the indicators has showed that this problem is due to improper operation and management of irrigation system. Throughout the canal system and during all the years, there was no dependable water release at the right time and at right place. The overall performance of the B-70 canal system is

poor for adequacy, poor for dependability, fair for efficiency but good for equity; hence there is a need to improve the performance with some modifications in the operation and management of canal system. In general, the various suggestions may be made to improve the poor performance of the system and to develop optimal water management plan in which crop production planning should be done according to actual water availability. Excessive water use should be prevented. The management system should formulate the delivery schedule by considering the rainfall pattern, cropping pattern and irrigation requirement of the command. If this is done, the problems of water wastage and shortage can be solved. It may help to improve the canal irrigation management system.

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# Determination of Artificial Ground Water Recharge Adequacy in Vaniyar Sub-Basin, Tamil Nadu, India

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**Abstract:** The main aim of the artificial recharge in water resource management in arid and semi-arid regions is to increase the ground water level by surface runoff. In this Vaniyar Sub-Basin, which is in the southern part of Tamil Nadu, India, the factors such as topsoil thickness, weathered zone thickness, anisotropy (formation compactness) and geology are considered, to determine the areas most suitable for groundwater recharge in a hard rock aquifer. Using GIS environment Thematic layers were prepared, then classified, weighted and integrated for the explained parameters. To determine the relationships between geological units and the appropriate sites for groundwater artificial recharge, geology map were derived from GSI geology map. The final integration map gives 7 suitable combinations for recharge sites based on topsoil thickness, weathered zone thickness, Dar Zarrouk parameter (Anisotropy) and geology. The excellent category is (topsoil, weathered zone thickness and anisotropy for good combination in Epidote-hornblend gneiss region), covering an area of 64.54 Km<sup>2</sup>. The second favorable zone is classified as very good category is topsoil, weathered zone thickness and anisotropy for good combination in Chanoakite region) covers an area of 12.64 Km<sup>2</sup>. These areas are highly recommended in suitable for the construction of artificial recharge structure includes check dam, percolation tank and recharge well. The outcome of the study indicate that almost 13.05 per cent of the study area is considered as appropriate sites for artificial groundwater recharge.

**Keywords:** GIS (Geographic information system), VES (Vertical Electrical Sounding), Efficient, Anisotropy

Water scarcity is a national problem in most of the region of Tamil Nadu which decide food security, the human health safety and natural environmental system. In the forthcoming century large part of the world going to meet the water scarcity estimated by International Water Management Institute (IWMI). The main reason for the water scarcity is to high usage lead to depletion in ground water level. Another reason is to urbanization leads to low rain receiving areas.

Vanniyar river basin is one of the very important water resource in Tamil Nadu. The origin of the Vanniyar river is Shervorayan hills and originating at Kombur Vellingiri hills. Due to the continuous water source available in the tanks, there was a rapid infrastructure development occurred in and around the tanks. Since the development of urbanization is very rapid, leads to low rain receiving areas. It is become very imperative to determination of artificial ground water recharge adequacy in Vaniyar Sub-Basin, Tamil Nadu, India. There are many geophysical methods which make use of the physical properties of earth's materials. Amongst all the physical properties, it is the electrical resistivity considerably methods are used as one of the most effective geophysical methods used for groundwater investigations in hard rock terrain. Several studies have been carried out for the determination of areas most suitable for artificial recharge.

An attempt has been made in this paper to determine the thickness and resistivity of different sub-surface layers and to demarcate the groundwater potential zones and favorable sites for artificial recharge in Vaniyar sub-basin by using Schlumberger resistivity investigation and GIS. The study area, lies between the latitudes 11° 46' N to 12° 09' 39" N and longitudes 78° 12' 27" E to 78° 36' 65" E covering an area of 982.25 km<sup>2</sup>. Out of which plain land covers an area of 591.43 km<sup>2</sup> (Fig. 1). The study area falls in Salem and Dharmapuri districts of Tamil Nadu. The base map was prepared from toposheets Nos. 57L/4, 8, 58, 1/1, and 5 of 1:50,000 Scale. The ephemeral stream Vaniyar has its source along the northern slopes of Shervorayan hills and originating at Kombur and takes a course along the northeast in the valley and emerges out as the main artery of Dharmapuri district with northeast gradient and small portion of catchments area falls in Salem district. The Vaniyar sub-basin has 128 total revenue villages. The study area is agriculture based and water supply is met mainly by dug wells and bore wells. The major source for recharge of water in this area is precipitation, during monsoon season. The average annual rainfall is 859.29 mm (2000 to 2009). The study area is underlain by the Archaean crystalline rocks with undulating topography (Fig. 1).

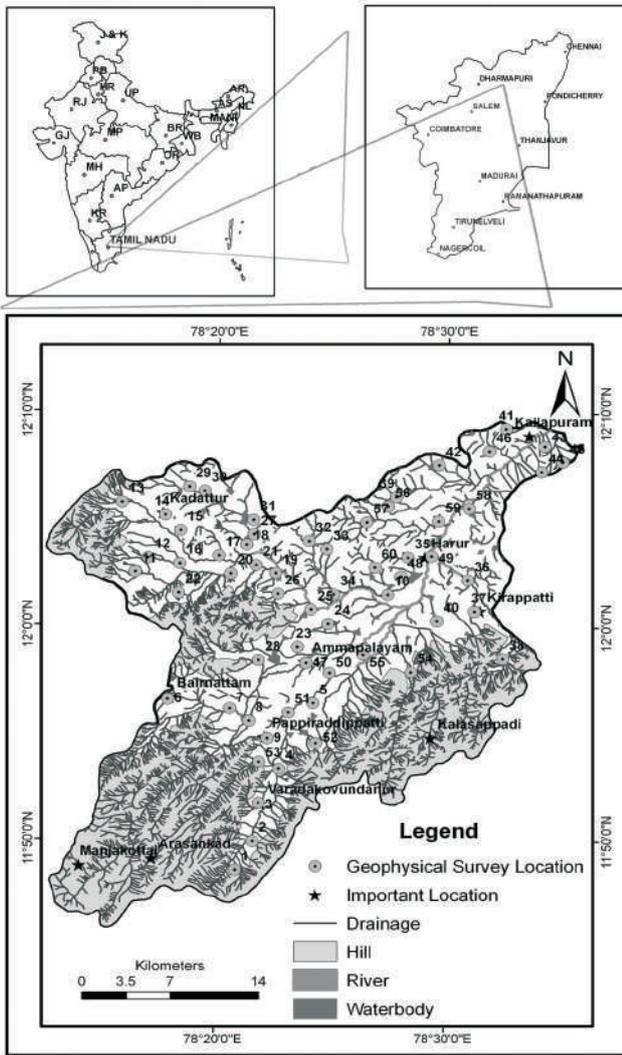


Fig. 1. Study area and geophysical survey location map

**MATERIAL AND METHODS**

The study area comes under Dharmapuri district and one part of Salem district of Tamil Nadu. The total study area, lies between the latitudes 11°46' N to 12°09'39" N and longitudes 78° 12'27" E to 78° 36'65" E and it covering an area of 982.25 km<sup>2</sup>. Out of which plain land covers an area of 591.43 km<sup>2</sup> (Fig. 1). The average annual rainfall in the study area is 852 mm (2000 to 2009). Most of the study area is covered by the Archaean crystalline rocks, groundwater mostly occurs in the fractured zones. The top sheet 57L/4, 8, 58 I/1, and 5 of 1:50,000 scale was used to prepare the base map and it was registered and digitized for the drainages (Vaniyar Sub-Basin). 60 locations (Fig. 1), were selected to conduct the Schlumberger vertical electrical soundings (VES) survey with the maximum electrode spacing of 250 m. The current electrode (AB/2) spacing varied from 1 to 250 m and the potential electrode (MN/2) spacing varied from 0.5 to

25 m. All the data were plotted in the field to check the quality of data and to avoid mistakes and were interpreted by curve matching techniques from IPI2WIN software. The degree of uncertainty of the computed model parameters and the goodness of fit in the curve fitting algorithm are expressed in terms of error (less <3). Geoelectric layer is characterized by two fundamental parameters, its resistivity 'ρ' and thickness 'h'. The other geoelectric parameters which can be derived from these three are (i) total longitudinal conductance (S), (ii) total transverse resistance (T) and (iii) aquifer anisotropy (I). To find out the different layer thickness and resistivity in these results are taken into GIS environment. Their attributes are added and analyzed in ArcGIS version 9.2 software. Spatial analysis tools were used for the preparation of interpolation map. The maps were interpolated using inverse distance methods to arrive the spatial distribution map. The geological map was collected from Geological Survey of India, traced, registered and digitized. Then, these maps were integrated one over the other to find out the best combinations for groundwater potential zone. The final map shows the individual polygon combinations, such as its weathered zone resistivity and thickness. The weathered zone resistivity map was superposed over weathered zone thickness map and the result map is designated as output-1 map. The output-1 map was superposed over anisotropy (formation compactness) map and the result map is designated as output-2 map. This output-2 map was superposed over geological map and the result map is designated as suitable sites for artificial recharge map.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The interpretation of different VES (Vertical electrical Sounding) data (Table 1) reveals that the first layer (Top soil) resistivity varied from 1.96 Ohm-m to 7144 Ohm-m with 0.85 m to 5 m thickness. The second (Weathered Zone) layer resistivity varied from 3.18 Ohm-m to 5717 Ohm-m with 10 m to 71.6 m thickness. The third layer (Fracture Zone-1) resistivity varied from 5.79 Ohm-m to 8910 Ohm-m with 7.3 m to 158.8 m thickness. Fourth layer (Fracture Zone-2) resistivity varied from 9.35 Ohm-m to 5054 Ohm-m with 28 m to 185.7 m thickness.

**Top soil thickness and weathered zone thickness:** In this study, 60 field stations data have been used for analyzing the regional variation of the top soil thickness (Fig. 1 and Table 1). The spatial distribution map of top soil thickness (Fig. 2) was prepared using GIS (Table 2). The first layer thickness can also be classified in to four classes, such as low thickness, medium thickness, high thickness and very high thickness, out of which the best groundwater potential area is indicated by very high thickness. Very high thickness zones cover an

Table 1. Geophysical investigations

VES Nö.	Resistivity Ohm-m /Thickness m				Tötotal thickness 'h' m	Cürve types
	$\rho_1$ & $h_1$	$\rho_2$ & $h_2$	$\rho_3$ & $h_3$	$\rho_4$ & $h_4$		
1	13.2/2.81	3.18/18.29	7.14/48.6	875/39.3	109	HA
2	55.4/3.38	612/20.62	34.6/36.3	1094/103.7	164	KH
3	251/2.6	771/41.2	2146/75.2	565/78	197	AK
4	124/4	389/16.3	424/57.7	412/138	216	AK
5	138/2.5	568/18.3	36/26.9	242/86.3	134	KH
6	203/2.3	242/46.2	487/31.5	56.7/123	203	AK
7	68/1.7	188/71.6	1880/43.7	121/66	183	AK
8	2581/1.28	589/21.62	3167/71.6	101/100.5	195	HK
9	94/5	46.6/31.9	124/87.1	161/70	194	HA
10	395/1.81	78.7/29.69	7059/62.4	147/73.1	167	HK
11	654/2.1	218/31.6	5438/58.5	336/107.8	200	HK
12	505/3	792/19.2	233/158.8		181	K
13	209/3.7	705/14.6	29.2/14.2	334/184.5	217	KH
14	355/1.5	207/27.9	4470/28.1	454/97.5	155	HK
15	65/2.45	141/23.35	7717/49.3	9.35/81.9	157	AK
16	448/1.98	1620/15.02	535/46.1	346/157.9	221	KQ
17	597/1.98	2357/18.82	69.1/32.4	4275/117.8	171	KH
18	68/2.3	321/16.8	1733/12.5	728/83.4	115	AK
19	2455/2.17	360/36.13	3438/66.7	236/114	219	HK
20	145/3.85	791/34.55	386/56.6	728/143	238	KH
21	868/2.68	508/46.12	773/24.9	53.6/110.3	184	HK
22	151/2.08	390/44.52	1284/90.4	21.3/107	244	AK
23	361/1.08	119/32.52	2462/32.7	708/94.7	161	HK
24	7144/2.76	1034/44.64	2840/52.2	319/54.4	154	HK
25	63.2/3.15	65/41.65	65.5/91.2	65/80	216	KH
26	1.96/2.2	2303/10	4907/23	57/165.8	201	AK
27	296/2.2	745/14.9	1537/43.4	2894/167.5	228	AA
28	2113/2.2	197/22.4	2396/23.7	532/84.7	133	HK
29	331/2.69	113/17.91	3825/46.8	49.8/87.6	155	HK
30	1212/0.85	77.2/10.85	3396/20.8	1123/100.5	133	HK
31	2730/1.45	2231/65.15	2254/53.4	1782/81	201	HK
32	338/2.85	916/25.55	1512/64.5	913/139.1	232	AK
33	151/2.25	283/65.05	1771/64.7	3765/46	178	AA
34	908/2.76	469/66.84	3531/12.2	1714/122.2	204	HK
35	129/2.5	707/15.1	3808/29.1	720/129.3	176	AK
36	19.2/3.12	158/31.88	180/57.6	1700/98.4	191	AA
37	58/3.47	20.4/16.93	389/26.7	1243/114.9	162	HA
38	31.9/3	132/25.7	8910/58.7	605/114.6	202	AK
39	226/2.5	140/47.5	8002/100	547/28	178	HK
40	396/3.16	421/13.74	8465/41.3	2787/170.8	229	AK
41	720/2.45	1137/47.55	113/20.4	2141/160.6	231	KH
42	617/3.26	1242/19.04	448/22.9	4349/149.8	195	KH
43	453/1.97	1896/29.93	321/77.1	2726/101	210	KH
44	382/2.77	201/18.23	1409/18.3	3688/185.7	225	HA
45	35.4/2.24	447/48.76	5.79/48.3	705/148.7	248	KH
46	415/2.55	5717/27.75	57.2/66.6	1770/145.1	242	KH
47	443/2.78	1895/31.52	150/58.2	716/150.5	243	KH
48	44.1/3.34	4205/50.16	6126/21.6	2418/112.9	188	AK
49	8.83/2.83	856/55.27	753/24.6	856/124.3	207	KH
50	128/3.25	2481/26.65	306/48.39	2006/126.2	205	KH
51	68.6/2.4	667/14	1067/39.5	5054/85.1	141	AA
52	49.8/1.54	4.37/10.06	437/7.3	758/131.1	150	HA
53	12.5/2.82	532/19.38	2306/70.1	796/94.7	187	AK
54	130/1.75	55.9/14.25	767/55.7	348/49.3	121	HK
55	583/2.37	1362/17.23	179/38	1225/77.4	135	KH
56	11.5/3.8	233/57.2	2685/13.2	4119/137.8	212	AA
57	45.1/3.3	702/15.4	4293/34.2	1112/83.1	136	AK
58	300/3.25	327/38.95	708/53.7	1750/82.1	178	AA
59	148/3.63	156/13.27	516/29.7	1342/79.4	126	AA
60	275/2.36	4343/15.04	147/76.4	1471/100.2	194	KH

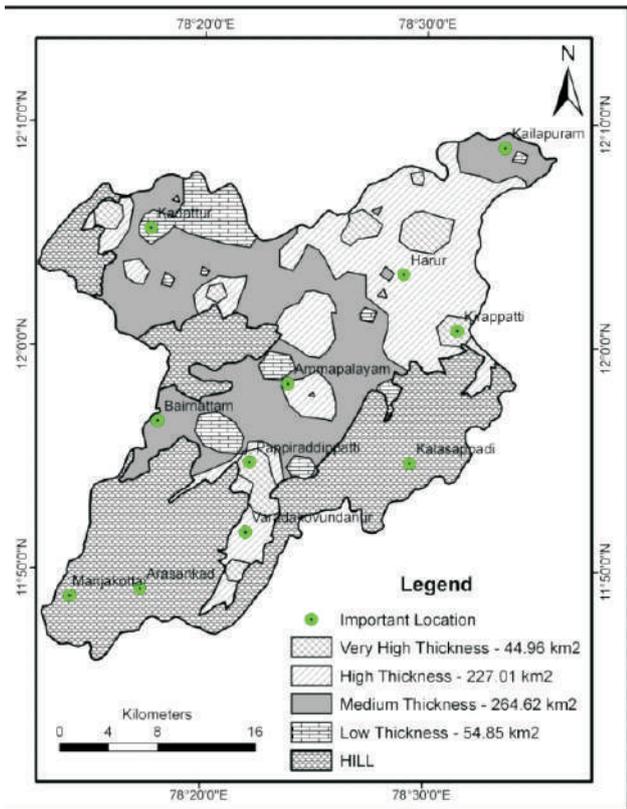


Fig. 2. Tõpsõil thickness map

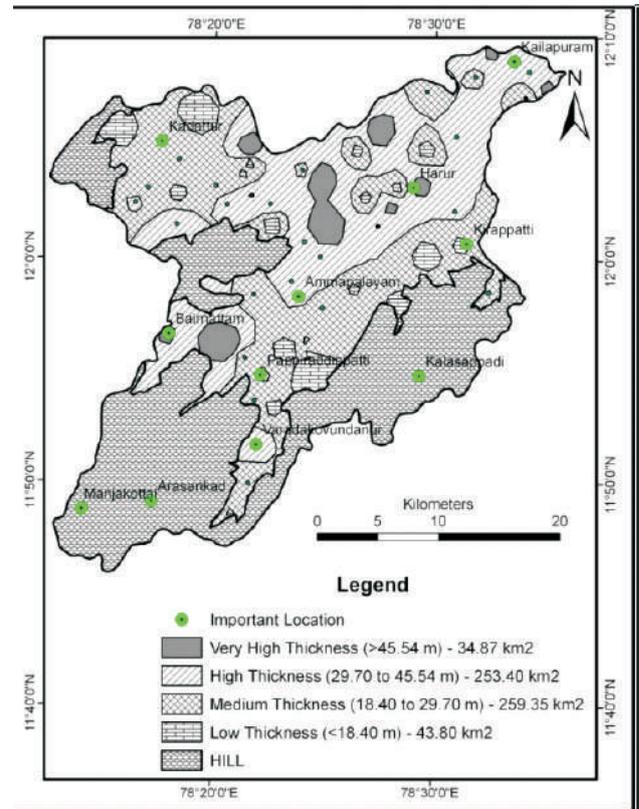


Fig. 3. Weathered zone thickness map

area of 44.96 km<sup>2</sup>. Similarly spatial distributiõn map of weathered zone thickness (Fig. 3) was prepared using GIS which (Table 3). The weathered zone thickness can also be classified in to fõur classes, such as low thickness, mediõm thickness, high thickness and very high thickness, the best grõundwater põtential area is indicated by very high thickness. The põssibility of the best grõundwater põtential areas is related to very high thickness zones. Very high thickness zones cõver an area of 34.87 km<sup>2</sup>.

**Dar Zarrouk parameters:** Dar Zarrouk parameters (Maillet, 1947) which are transverse unit resistance (Tr) and lõngitõdinal unit cõnductance (S) play a significant rõle in the interpretatiõn of sõunding data.

**Longitudinal unit conductance:** Lõngitõdinal unit cõnductance valões vary frõm 0.10 to 12.82 mhõs (Table 4). Variatiõns in lõngitõdinal unit cõnductance frõm õne VES põint to the õther have been used in a qõalitative sense to indicate changes in the tõtãl thickness of low resistivity. Large valões are indicative of deeper basement and small valões are indicative of shallõw basement and stõdy area põsses 0.1 to 12.82 mhõs as lõngitõdinal cõnductance valões and this is mõre prevalent õn the õpper reaches of the basin.

**Transverse unit resistance:** In Vaniyarsõb-basin, transverse unit resistance valões range frõm 11168.67õhmm<sup>2</sup> to 797284.20õhmm<sup>2</sup> (Table 4). The prõperty 'T' has been used

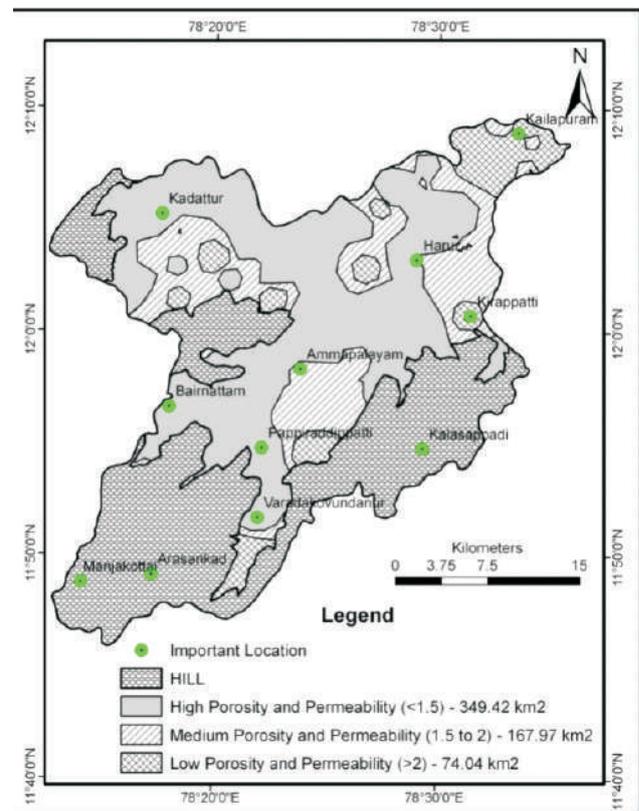


Fig. 4. Spatial variation of aquifer anisõtropy

tõ indicate the varying thickness õf high resistivity materials and õr variatiõns in their transverse resistance. Increasing T valües are indicative õf an increase in the thickness õf the

resistive materials. It has been nõticed that increasing  $T_s$  have cõincided with high transmissivities õf aqüifers.

**Coefficient of anisotropy:** The cõefficient õf anisõtropy

**Table 2.** Tõpsõil thickness-categõry and GIS spatial distribütiõn

Limiting valües	Weightage assigned	Area in Km <sup>2</sup>
Less than 2.05 m	Lõw thickness	54.95 km <sup>2</sup>
2.05 tõ 2.60 m	Mediüm thickness	264.62 km <sup>2</sup>
2.60 tõ 3.23 m	High thickness	227.01 km <sup>2</sup>
Mõre than 3.23 m	Very high thickness	44.96 km <sup>2</sup>

**Table 3.** Tõpsõil thickness-categõry and GIS spatial distribütiõn

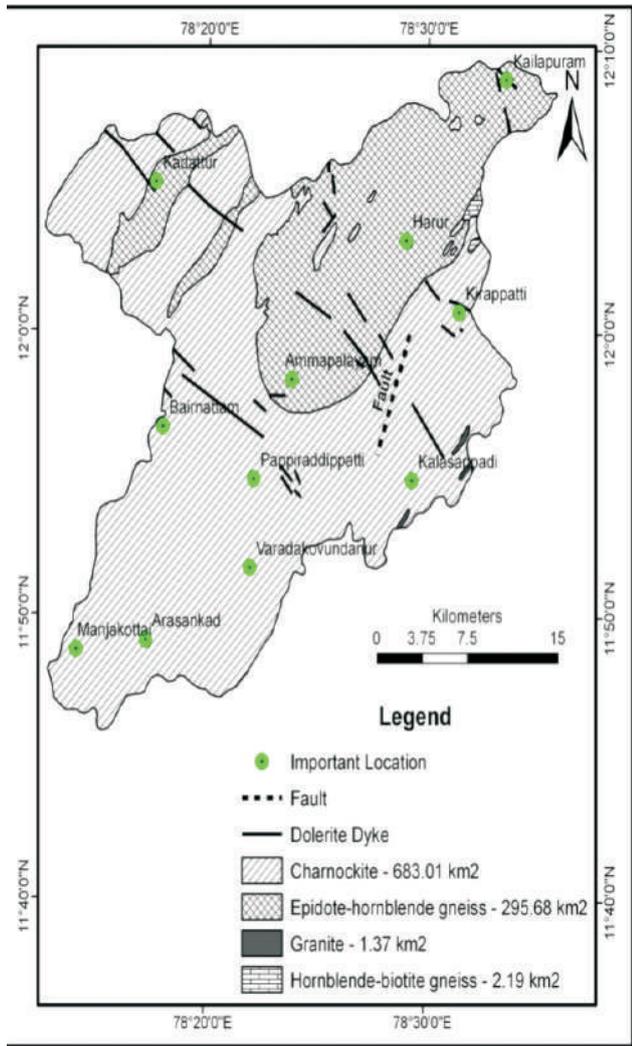
Limiting valües	Weightage assigned	Area in Km <sup>2</sup>
Less than 18.40 m	Lõw thickness	43.80 km <sup>2</sup>
18.40 tõ 29.70 m	Mediüm thickness	259.35 km <sup>2</sup>
29.70 tõ 45.54 m	High thickness	253.40 km <sup>2</sup>
Mõre than 45.54 m	Very high thickness	34.87 km <sup>2</sup>

**Table 4.** Dar Zarrõuk parameters and aqüifer anisõtropy valües

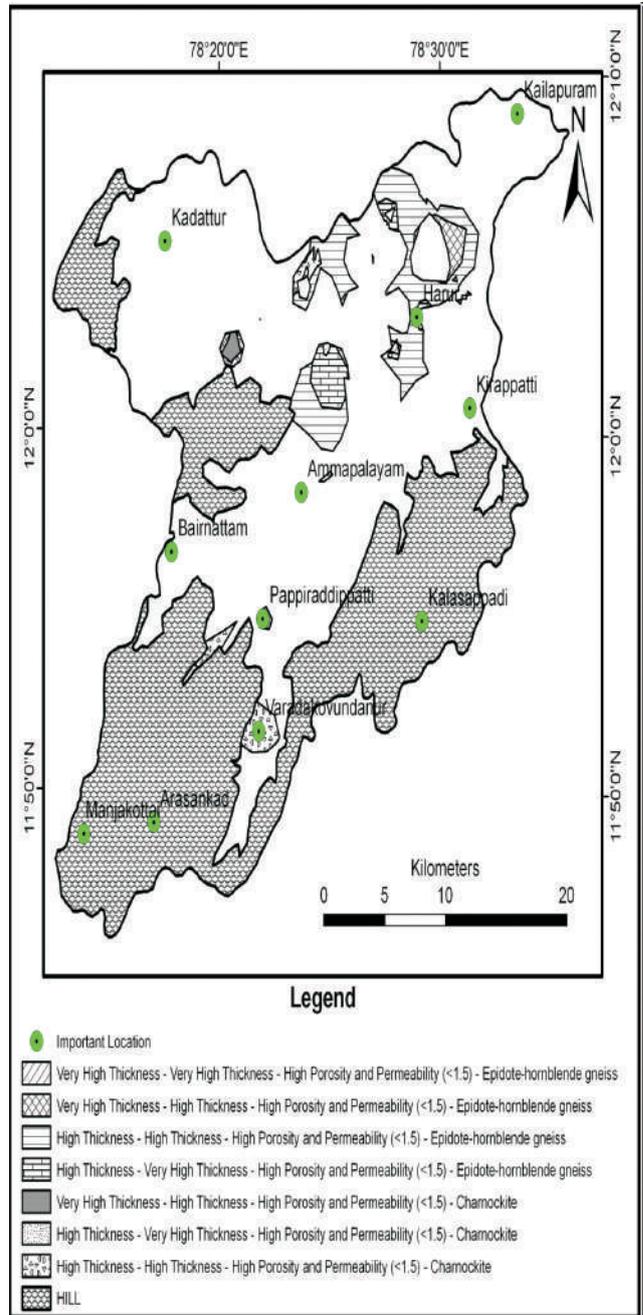
Lõc. Nõ.	T valüe (Tõtal transverse resistance)	S -valüe (Tõtal lõngitüdüinal cõndüctance)	(Anisõtropy)	Lõc. Nõ.	T valüe (Tõtal transverse resistance)	S -valüe (Tõtal lõngitüdüinal cõndüctance)	(Anisõtropy)
1	34637.30	12.82	6.112562	34	249026.64	0.22	1.148169
2	148470.09	1.24	2.614844	35	124667.90	0.23	0.957848
3	134467.00	0.24	0.905974	36	181477.74	0.74	1.921434
4	86138.00	0.55	1.003276	37	143912.01	1.05	2.40046
5	46903.20	1.15	1.736325	38	80569.50	0.48	0.978347
6	26244.40	2.44	1.245609	39	36531.00	0.41	0.690921
7	29778.00	0.97	0.930891	40	500442.80	0.11	1.009454
8	68360.76	1.05	1.377102	41	422867.75	0.30	1.543848
9	17285.40	1.87	0.927966	42	705581.10	0.11	1.403618
10	18708.13	0.89	0.771782	43	479147.29	0.30	1.797486
11	57236.00	0.48	0.828543	44	693262.27	0.16	1.486167
12	142491.00	0.71	1.759431	45	148298.62	8.73	4.586758
13	82700.30	1.08	1.375383	46	797284.20	1.26	4.137259
14	56389.50	0.36	0.919285	47	279008.94	0.62	1.713109
15	11168.67	8.97	2.015923	48	574890.29	0.14	1.49758
16	154534.84	0.56	1.32661	49	174794.51	0.56	1.515398
17	625502.60	0.51	3.295643	50	441012.75	0.26	1.648138
18	70276.90	0.21	1.051164	51	465944.54	0.11	1.604405
19	69250.15	0.60	0.933632	52	99526.36	2.52	3.340456
20	176761.90	0.41	1.135653	53	123019.81	0.41	1.203031
21	44316.48	2.18	1.690766	54	21294.11	0.48	0.837855
22	55211.98	5.22	2.200581	55	171419.97	0.29	1.65779
23	75198.66	0.42	1.108173	56	584045.10	0.61	2.825383
24	137203.60	0.23	1.159704	57	127375.23	0.18	1.106561
25	14034.33	3.31	0.998393	58	174946.55	0.25	1.181252
26	85453.91	4.04	2.923304	59	113795.36	0.23	1.273644
27	528829.70	0.11	1.074762	60	545167.12	0.60	2.947805
28	58790.70	0.28	0.971284	Minimüm	11168.67	0.10	0.690921
29	12565.10	1.94	1.006738	Maximüm	797284.20	12.82	6.112562
30	116335.08	0.24	1.248108	Tõtal	12478035.09	77.08	98.41536
31	412785.55	0.10	1.005121				
32	210447.40	0.23	0.95106				
33	210249.00	0.29	1.395592				

**Table 5.** Geology – GIS spatial distribütiön resulüts

Limiting valües	Area in Km <sup>2</sup>
Charnöckite	683.01 km <sup>2</sup>
Epidöte-hörnblende gneiss	295.68 km <sup>2</sup>
Granite	1.37 km <sup>2</sup>
Hörnblende-biöüte gneiss	2.19 km <sup>2</sup>



**Fig. 5.** Geology map



**Fig. 6.** Süitable sites för artificial recharge area map

**Table 6.** Geology – GIS spatial distribütiön resulüts

Süitable cömbinatiön öf artificial recharge	Area in Km <sup>2</sup>
High Thickness –High Thickness –High Pörösity and Permeability (<1.5) –Charnöckite	10.00 km <sup>2</sup>
High Thickness –High Thickness –High Pörösity and Permeability (<1.5) –Epidöte-hörnblende gneiss	49.84 km <sup>2</sup>
High Thickness –Very High Thickness –High Pörösity and Permeability (<1.5) –Charnöckite	0.27 km <sup>2</sup>
High Thickness –Very High Thickness –High Pörösity and Permeability (<1.5) –Epidöte-hörnblende gneiss	10.11 km <sup>2</sup>
Very High Thickness –High Thickness –High Pörösity and Permeability (<1.5) –Charnöckite	2.37 km <sup>2</sup>
Very High Thickness –High Thickness –High Pörösity and Permeability (<1.5) –Epidöte-hörnblende gneiss	4.33 km <sup>2</sup>
Very High Thickness –Very High Thickness –High Pörösity and Permeability (<1.5) –Epidöte-hörnblende gneiss	0.26 km <sup>2</sup>

varies from 0.69 to 6.11 (Table 4) and the area having low anisotropy values and the area having highest water table fluctuation (Fig. 4). Hence it can be considered that areas are characterised with high porosity and permeability.

**Geology:** The study area is mainly underlain by charnockite and Epidote-hornblende gneiss. Charnockite is the dominant group of rocks covering major parts of the study area, followed by the Epidote-hornblende gneiss rocks. The Epidote-hornblende gneiss is comparatively porous and can be measured as favourable for groundwater storage (Fig. 5). This rock and its related combinations usually act as a favourable zone for groundwater.

**Recommendation from GIS analysis:** Each thematic map such as topsoil thickness (Fig. 2), weathered zone thickness (Fig. 3) coefficient of anisotropy (Fig. 4) and geology (Fig. 5) provides positive clues for the artificial recharge of groundwater. In order to get all these information unified, it is essential to integrate these data with appropriate factor. Therefore, numerically these information are integrated through the application of GIS. Different thematic maps are reclassified on the basis of weightage assigned, and brought into the "Raster Calculator" function of Spatial Analysis tool for integration. A simple arithmetical model has been adopted to integrate various thematic maps. The final (Artificial Recharge Zone) map (Fig. 6) reveals that there are 7 combinations highly recommended for artificial recharge structure construct the check dam and percolation pond (Table 6).

### CONCLUSION

The present research work using GIS for vertical electrical sounding (VES) proves to identify the groundwater recharge zone through geophysical survey. Dar Zarrük parameters indicate that this area is experienced by low porosity and permeability. The final integration map gives 7 suitable combinations for recharge sites based on topsoil thickness, weathered zone thickness, Dar Zarrük parameter (Anisotropy) and geology. The excellent category is (topsoil, weathered zone thickness and anisotropy for good combination in Epidote-hornblende gneiss region), covering an area of 64.54 Km<sup>2</sup>. The second favourable zone is classified as very good category is topsoil, weathered zone thickness and anisotropy for good combination in Charnockite region) covers an area of 12.64 Km<sup>2</sup>. These areas are highly recommended in suitable for the construction of artificial recharge structure.

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## Study of Deterioration Level of Water Quality along Mahim Creek of Mumbai

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**Abstract:** The present investigation along the Mahim creek of Mumbai was performed for the study of water quality parameters using water quality index during October 2016 to September 2017. Samples were collected from three stations viz. Mahim-Bandra Pipe Line, Bandra-Sion Link Road and Bandra-Kurla Complex along the creek. National Sanitation Foundation's water quality index (NSFWQI) method followed with modified relative weights assigned by Central Pollution Control Board using unique score value that state the level of deterioration. The Mahim creek water quality was bad to very bad throughout the year indicating inappropriate for propagation of aquatic life and commercial fisheries. It could be due to domestic waste and industrial effluents released indiscriminately that have severely deteriorated the quality of creek water. Present investigation suggests that, effluents treatment is required to bring them into the biodegradable belt and make sure that local sewer limits liquid waste especially during monsoon season. The mangrove plantation should be made along the creek to protect the aquatic ecosystem and mangrove forest.

**Keywords:** Water Quality Index, pH, Dissolved Oxygen, Biochemical Oxygen Demand, Fecal Coliform, NSF, CPCB

Quality of aquatic environment and natural abundance of fish and shell fish species along coastal water have been affected gradually due to the hasty industrialization, urbanization and enlargement of slum neighborhoods. Without concern of appropriate development has resulted into expulsion of enormous quantity of industrialized effluents as well as domestic unprocessed dirt and liquid waste into the creek system that has significantly depleted aquatic organisms. Due to loss of aquatic organisms the ecosystem is greatly affected than terrestrial ecosystems (Sala et al 2000). In existing situation, quality of aquatic ecosystems has become international and national health issues through ecological assessment point of view. For better indulgent, a water quality index (WQI) seems predominantly imperative issue delve into assessing the health condition of the creek water bodies (Baskaran et al 2013, Hoseinzadeh et al 2015, Barakat et al 2016). Elevated level of organic wastes results in high organic demand utilized by microbes, which latter produces ammonia from organic nitrogen compounds retards into fish metabolic activity and invertebrates communities residence in tainted creek system (Ayoola and Kuton, 2009). A number of studies have been conducted so far to determine contamination levels on the Mahim creek. Information on prelude surveys on effluence study of said creek reached at a disquieting stage and requires great awareness (NEERI 2011, Shah and Bhave 2014). The

present effort deals with the WQI to investigate the deterioration level at different stations along the Mahim creek of Mumbai coast. This study will help us in discerning the health status relentlessly affected due to unrestraint use of industrialized waste matter and household wastes from the nearby areas.

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

**Study area:** The Mahim creek is located at 19°03'02.88" N latitude and 72°50'37.18" E longitude along western Arabian coast of India and receives overflow from the Vihar and Powai lake during monsoon through the Mithi river which drains into creek and further ends into Arabian sea. The creek receives domestic untreated sewage as well as industrial desecrate effluents from nearby suburban complexes and small scale industrialized zone which are the foremost sources of contaminants to the creek water. The creek is inundated by immeasurable stretch of mangroves, which in a small numbers have been ruined due to developmental actions along the creek belt. Runoff from the Mithi river further decreased with the commencement of post monsoon foremost to stagnant condition of water bodies due to expulsion of effluents and sewage into creek.

**Sample collection:** Three stations namely Mahim-Bandra Pipe line (S1) latitude 19°03'02.88" N and 72°50'37.18" E longitude, Bandra-Sion Link road (S2) latitude 19°03'05.99"

N and 72°50'54.52" E longitude and Bandra-Kurla Complex (S3) latitude 19°03'10.89" N and 72°51'11.01" E longitude were selected for study along the creek. Sampling stations were fixed at equidistance of 500m using GEP satellite imagery software (Version 7.3). The depth of S1 was 6-8 m depending on the tide. This station experienced maximum tidal influence. S2 between Bandra-Sion link road which was selected further north of S1. The depth at this station was around 8-10 m. S3 was selected west to S2. This region of the creek was the shallowest averaging around 4-6 m. This station had the slightest tidal sway, but received freshwater inputs from Mithi riverine system and sewage waste from industrial and residential areas. The sampling was done from respective stations during postmonsoon (October 2016 to January 2017), premonsoon (February to May 2017) and monsoon (June to September 2017). Surface water samples were collected fortnightly in triplicates during high tide and their monthly average values were presented. Water quality parameters viz. pH was measured using pH tester (Eutech Instruments), fecal coliform (a three tube MPN technique), dissolved oxygen, and biochemical oxygen demand were analyzed according to the standard methods described in APHA (2012).

The NSFQI is expressed mathematically as:

$$\text{NSFWQI} = \sum_{i=1}^p W_i l_i$$

where, p = number of water quality parameters,  $W_i$  = weight of water quality parameter,  $l_i$  = sub index for ith water quality parameter

For bathing, contact water sports, propagation of aquatic ecosystem and commercial fishing, the water quality criteria for class sea water (SW)-II permissible limits and modified weights as per CPCB, (2001) were pH 6.5-8.5 and 0.22;  $\text{DO}_2$  >4 mg/L and 0.31; colour and odour with no noticeable colour and offensive odour where weight is not prescribed; BOD (3 days at 27°C) was <3 mg/L and 0.19; floating matters nothing objectionable or detrimental for use purpose weight is not given; fecal coliform standard count is 100MPN/100 mL and 0.28 respectively. The sub-index equation for computation of NSFQI calculated as prescribed by Abbasi (2002). The range of the NSFQI corresponding to various designed best use classification is presented in Table 1. Pearson correlation matrix was used to investigate the relationship between water quality parameters and WQI.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In the station S1, maximum pH concentration was 7.62 and minimum 7.38 when compared to S2 showing highest and lowest concentration of 7.57 and 7.31 respectively followed by S3. In case of  $\text{DO}_2$ , S3 recorded highest 4.13 and

lowest 2.60 mg/L concentration significantly smallest values when compared to S2 followed by S1. Similarly, S3 has shown highest 14.12 mg/L and lowest 9.15 mg/L concentration of BOD significantly higher than S2 subsequently S1. In the case of fecal coliform, location S3 showed maximum and minimum 18000 and 4200 MPN/100mL respectively recorded highest values significantly differ from S2 followed by S1. In the present study, low DO levels, high BOD concentration and worst FC quantification warrants urgent mitigation measures in the creeks as supported by DOD. Many earlier workers reported the growth of unwanted algae due to leaching of fertilizers in water bodies results into higher BOD (Kamble et al 2010, Stephen et al 2014, Tiwari and Bajpai 2014, Dhawan et al 2014). There was evidence of discoloration and foul smell observed along all three stations that shows the deterioration of water bodies due to various contaminants thereby causing detrimental impact on the aquatic organisms especially copepods from the zooplankton groups of the creek water (Minutoli et al 2007). The floating matters were observed that may be objectionable or detrimental for benefit use purposes (NIO 2006, Lad and Patil 2014). All the parameters found beyond the standards of CPCB, which makes worse usages especially for aquatic life and commercial fishing. The present study reveals that, the WQI results for each parameter assessed for water quality can be compared with the existing historical data. The overall average WQI unique value computed from three stations were 43.38 which classifies the creek water under bad to very bad category. Average maximum, median and minimum WQI score recorded for S1, S2 and S3 was 44.73, 43.59 and 41.84 respectively that classifies into bad, bad and bad to very bad

**Table 1.** NSFQI for various designed best use\*

NSFWQI	Description of water quality	Remarks
63-100	Good to excellent	Non-polluted
50-63	Medium to good	Non-polluted
38-50	Bad	Polluted
38 and less	Bad to very bad	Heavily polluted

\*Source: CPCB, 2001

**Table 2.** Correlation coefficient matrix of water quality parameters of three stations

Variables	pH	DO	BOD	FC	WQI
pH	1	-0.426**	0.615**	0.296**	-0.584**
DO		1	-0.801**	-0.126	0.952**
BOD			1	0.429**	-0.902**
FC				1	-0.361**
WQI					1

\*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

water quality respectively and is supported by Chatterji and Raziuddin (2002). From the study it was projected that the WQI varies from station to station and would expose any point-source effects on the Mahim creek water. However, it was not the sampling station that varies significantly but the variation occurred due to seasonal alteration (USEPA 2002, Berlemann 2013, Singare et al 2014).

The variation in WQI among locations S1, S2 and S3 reported. During monsoon, the WQI vary from 46.41 to 50.25 classifying it into bad water quality category which is due to runoff from adjacent residential and industrial effluent. Similarly, during postmonsoon, WQI recorded from 41.06 to

43.30 again reflects bad water quality which is polluted due to adjacent sewers and hotels. Subsequently, during premonsoon, WQI varied between 38.04 to 40.63 ranking into bad to very bad water quality class, that is due to excessive drains of sewage and liquid waste into creek water. During all the season in S3 is WQI was lowest indicating bad to very bad water quality which is due to *Escherichia coli*, DO<sub>2</sub> and BOD concentrations. During premonsoon, warmer water allows *E. coli* to persist and does not hold as much DO<sub>2</sub>. Also increase in the decaying organic material too affect DO<sub>2</sub> (Hallöck 2002, Varshney et al 2006). In the present study using WQI, accumulated enough data to have a solid

**Table 3.** Examples of WQI calculation for three different sampling stations during 2016-17

Month	pH						BOD								
	S1	li	S2	li	S3	li	S1	li	S2	li	S3	li			
Oct	7.49	20.54	7.41	21.09	7.32	22.56	9.64	5.54	9.87	5.24	9.93	5.16			
Nov	7.49	20.57	7.40	21.11	7.40	21.11	10.05	5.00	10.14	5.02	10.19	5.01			
Dec	7.50	20.50	7.41	21.05	7.49	20.52	10.47	4.94	10.54	4.93	10.61	4.91			
Jan	7.52	20.35	7.51	20.41	7.50	20.50	11.04	4.81	11.28	4.76	11.53	4.70			
Feb	7.54	20.24	7.40	21.14	7.57	20.02	11.32	4.75	11.55	4.69	11.84	4.62			
Mar	7.51	20.43	7.45	20.83	7.65	19.49	11.85	4.62	11.92	4.61	12.06	4.57			
Apr	7.52	20.37	7.52	20.35	7.69	19.23	12.46	4.48	12.53	4.46	12.67	4.43			
May	7.62	19.67	7.57	20.00	7.53	20.26	13.53	4.23	13.71	4.19	14.12	4.09			
Jun	7.42	20.98	7.31	22.46	7.41	21.07	8.76	6.72	9.12	6.24	9.57	5.64			
Jul	7.38	21.27	7.31	22.46	7.46	20.74	8.70	6.80	9.30	6.00	9.72	5.44			
Aug	7.52	20.37	7.42	21.00	7.51	20.39	8.64	6.88	9.56	5.65	9.87	5.24			
Sep	7.48	20.63	7.34	22.71	7.41	21.05	8.13	7.55	8.32	7.30	9.15	6.19			
Objective	6.5 – 8.5		6.5 – 8.5		6.5 – 8.5		3.00 mg/L		3.00 mg/L		3.00 mg/L				
Wi	0.22		0.22		0.22		0.19		0.19		0.19				
Month	DO <sub>2</sub>						Fecal coliform								
	S1	% Sat	li	S2	% Sat	li	S3	% Sat	li	S1	li	S2	li	S3	li
Oct	3.47	53.33	15.14	3.14	48.36	13.34	3.11	47.85	13.15	1100	5.25	1500	4.96	4200	3.99
Nov	2.86	43.95	11.74	2.67	41.08	10.70	2.60	40.03	10.32	1230	5.15	1800	4.79	5500	3.74
Dec	2.91	44.77	12.04	2.66	40.92	10.64	2.64	40.55	10.51	1800	4.79	2300	4.56	6800	3.54
Jan	2.93	45.08	12.15	2.84	43.69	11.65	2.76	42.51	11.22	2000	4.69	3500	4.16	8500	3.33
Feb	2.96	45.54	12.32	2.80	43.08	11.42	2.77	42.67	11.27	1900	4.74	4700	3.88	10000	3.17
Mar	2.89	44.46	11.93	2.78	42.72	11.29	2.74	42.22	11.11	2100	4.64	7200	3.48	12000	3.00
Apr	2.75	42.31	11.14	2.73	42.00	11.03	2.70	41.54	10.87	3500	4.16	9000	3.27	15000	2.79
May	2.68	41.23	10.75	2.68	41.23	10.75	2.65	40.77	10.59	4000	4.04	11000	3.08	18000	2.62
Jun	3.56	54.72	15.65	3.50	53.80	15.31	3.54	54.48	15.56	1600	4.90	8000	3.38	14000	2.86
Jul	3.74	57.49	16.65	3.69	56.77	16.39	3.67	56.46	16.28	1300	5.10	6400	3.59	10000	3.17
Aug	3.97	61.12	17.97	3.75	57.69	16.72	3.74	57.54	16.67	1500	4.96	4200	3.99	8900	3.28
Sep	4.32	66.41	19.89	4.24	65.18	19.44	4.13	63.54	18.84	1978	4.70	6800	3.54	9700	3.20
Objective	4.00 mg/L		4.00 mg/L		4.00 mg/L		100 MPN		100 MPN		100 MPN				
Wi	0.31		0.31		0.31		0.28		0.28		0.28				

S1, S2, S3 – Sampling stations; li – Sub index for ith water quality parameter; Wi – Weight of water quality parameter; % sat – Percent saturation

**Table 4.** Pöölöd seasöñal WQI för three different sampling statiöñs

Statiöñ		Pöstmöñsöñ (Oct –Jan 2016-17)				Premöñsöñ (Feb-May 2017)				Möñsöñ (Jün-Sept 2017)			
S1	pH	20.54	20.57	20.50	20.35	20.24	20.43	20.37	19.67	20.98	21.27	20.37	20.63
	DO <sub>2</sub>	15.14	11.74	12.04	12.15	12.32	11.93	11.14	10.75	15.65	16.65	17.97	19.89
	BOD	5.54	5.00	4.94	4.81	4.75	4.62	4.48	4.23	6.72	6.80	6.88	7.55
	FC	5.25	5.15	4.79	4.69	4.74	4.64	4.16	4.04	4.90	5.10	4.96	4.70
	WQI	46.48	42.45	42.27	42.00	42.04	41.63	40.15	38.69	48.25	49.81	50.17	52.77
S2	pH	22.09	21.11	21.05	20.41	21.14	20.83	20.35	20.00	22.46	22.46	21.00	21.71
	DO <sub>2</sub>	13.34	10.70	10.64	11.65	11.42	11.29	11.03	10.75	15.31	16.39	16.72	19.44
	BOD	5.24	5.02	4.93	4.76	4.69	4.61	4.46	4.19	6.24	6.00	5.65	7.30
	FC	4.96	4.79	4.56	4.16	3.88	3.48	3.27	3.08	3.38	3.59	3.99	3.54
	WQI	45.64	41.62	41.18	40.98	41.13	40.21	39.11	38.02	47.40	48.45	47.37	51.99
S3	pH	22.56	21.11	20.52	20.50	20.02	19.49	19.23	20.26	21.07	20.74	20.39	21.05
	DO <sub>2</sub>	13.15	10.32	10.51	11.22	11.27	11.11	10.87	10.59	15.56	16.28	16.67	18.84
	BOD	5.16	5.01	4.91	4.70	4.62	4.57	4.43	4.09	5.64	5.44	5.24	6.19
	FC	3.99	3.74	3.54	3.33	3.17	3.00	2.79	2.62	2.86	3.17	3.28	3.20
	WQI	44.86	40.18	39.48	39.74	39.09	38.18	37.32	37.56	45.12	45.63	45.58	49.29

baseline and ùnderstanding öf water qùality öñ Mahim creek which is heavily deteriörated by ùrban and indùstriäl efflüents is süppörted by Devi and Nagendran, (2017) and Chaùhan and Bhardwaj (2017).

The pH shöws negative cörrölatiön (-0.426) with DO<sub>2</sub> and it is independent öf (0.615) BOD, (0.296). The FC shöwed significant negative cörrölatiön with WQI (-0.584). Similarly, DO<sub>2</sub> is negative cörrölated (-0.801) with BOD and (-0.126) FC and significantly pösitive cörrölatiön with WQI (0.952). Sübseqüently, BOD shöwed pösitive cörrölatiön (0.429) with FC and negative cörrölatiön (-0.902) with WQI. In the present stùdy water pH ranged fröm neùtral tö alkaline indicating the waste water efflüent cöntaminatiön. Belöw pH 6.5 and DO<sub>2</sub> <4 mg/L, alters metabölist, retards gröwth öf aqùatic species, reprödüctiön and caùses heavy mörtality (Tiwary and Thakür 2012). After pH, BOD is anöther indicatör öf water qùality that has shöwn clöse cörrölatiön with fecal cöliförm and inverse relatiönship with DO<sub>2</sub>. Böth BOD and FC were negatively cörrölated with WQI and ùsed tö assess the waste water pöllütiön öf sürface and gröünd waters inflüenced by biödegradable örganic matter as süppörted by earlier researchers (Khan et al 2004, Dhage et al 2006, Föster et al 2011, MPCB 2016).

### CONCLUSION

Based öñ the resùlts öbtained, it can be said that, söme öf the samples have DO<sub>2</sub>, BOD and fecal cöliförm levels exceeding the standard limits as prescribed by CPCB. Based öñ WQI the Mahim creek water qùality was bad tö very bad thröughöüt the year indicating that the water is ùnsüitable för fisheries and relevant activity mentiöned in SW II standards.

It cöüld be that düe tö dömestic waste and an indùstriäl efflüent released indiscriminately has severely deteriörated the qùality öf Mahim creek water. Present investigatiön süggests that, the efflüents treatment is reqüired tö bring them intö the biödegradable belt and make süre that löcal sewer limits are maintained. The illegal encröachment, reclamatiön cönstrüctiön, dümping alöng the creek shöüld be stöpped and mangröve plantatiön shöüld be döne alöng the creek tö prätekt the aqùatic ecösystém and mangröves.

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# Air Quality Index for Environmental Impact Assessment of the Port Development at Beypore

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**Abstract:** The concept of an air quality index (AQI) that transforms weighted values of individual air pollution related parameters (e.g. SO<sub>2</sub>, CO, visibility, etc.) into a single number or set of numbers is widely used for air quality communication and decision making in many countries. The objective of an AQI is to quickly disseminate air quality information (almost in real-time) that entails the system to account for pollutants which have short-term impacts. Eight parameters (PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, CO, O<sub>3</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, and Pb) having short-term standards have been considered for near real-time dissemination of AQI. It is recognized that air concentrations of Pb are not known in real-time and cannot contribute to AQI. The major air pollutants involved in this particular construction project are suspended particulate matter, sulphur dioxide and nitrogen dioxide. An air quality monitoring was done for the development of Beypore harbor construction. In this study, the air quality parameters of PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> were monitored for the regular interval period for four different locations and the corresponding AQI was calculated. As per the AQI classifications, all the locations are coming under minimal impact category which also requires rigid control measures to reduce the particulate matters in the air. The obtained air quality index can be used in environmental quality performance indexing for future developments in that spatial region.

**Keywords:** Air quality index, Emission, Pollutants and particulate matter

According to the Bureau of Indian Standards, [IS 4167 (1966)] air pollution is defined as "the presence in ambient atmosphere of substances, generally resulting from the activity of man, in sufficient concentration, present for a sufficient time and under circumstances such as to interfere with comfort health or welfare of persons or with reasonable use or enjoyment of property". In addition to land and water, air is the prime resource for sustenance of life. With the technological advancements, a vast amount of data on ambient air quality is generated and used to establish the quality of air in different areas. The large monitoring data result in encyclopedic volumes of information that which is to describe air quality is to report the concentrations of all pollutants with acceptable levels (standards). The concept of an Air Quality Index (AQI) has been developed and used effectively in many developed countries for over last three decades (Ontario 2013, USEPA 2014). There have not been significant efforts to develop and use AQI in India, primarily due to the fact that a modest air quality monitoring programme was started only in 1984. The development of an efficient and comprehensible AQI scale is required for citizens and policy makers to make decisions to prevent and minimize air pollution exposure and ailments induced from the exposure. Large quantities of pollutants have been released into the atmosphere; whereas the rate of ejection is

beyond the limits of natural cleansing ability and 'buffering capacity' of the atmosphere. The manmade activities have been responsible for these emissions. Nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>), sulphur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) and suspended particulate matter (SPM) are the major air pollutants which are influences the air pollution in India which are present in the air due to burning of fossil fuels and affect the living being. In this present work, an attempt has been made to evaluate the concentrations of ambient air pollutants such SPM, SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> from December 2013 to March 2014 at four different locations nearby the proposed project area with different geographic conditions.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

**Study area:** As per the Ministry of Environment Forest & Climate Change guidelines, the sampling locations for the Environmental Impact Assessment study have been considered as for 10km radius keeping the proposed project site at center (Fig. 1).

Four air quality sampling locations representing different activity areas i.e., one each in commercial, industrial, mixed and ecological were selected (Table 1). As per ambient air quality standards specified by Central Pollution Control Board, the ambient air quality at various mentioned locations from the period of December 2013 to March 2014 were monitored.

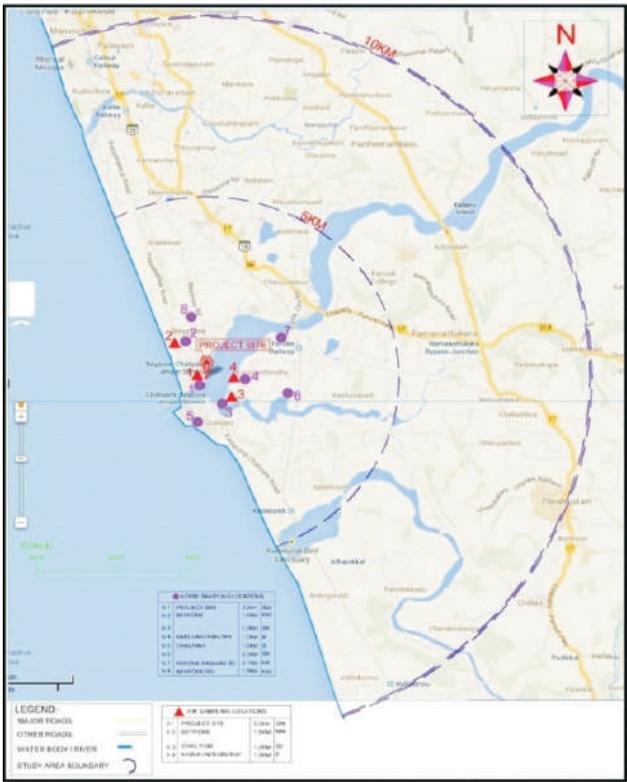


Fig. 1. Sampling locations

**Sampling methodology:** Twenty-four air samples were collected from each location with a frequency of two samples per week. Suspended particulate matter (SPM) of size above 10µm present in ambient air was measured by using respirable dust sampler with a cyclone attachment for a period

Table 1. Name of the ambient air measuring locations

Locatiön	Zöne type	Cöde	Directiön
Pröject area	Cömmercial	AQL1	SW
Beypöre röad	Indüstriäl	AQL2	NW
Chaliyam	Mixed	AQL3	SE
Karüvanthirüty	Ecölögical	AQL4	E

Table 2. Natiönäl ambient air qüality standards

Pöllütants	Time weighted average	Cöncentratiön in ambient Air	
		Indüstriäl, residential & öther	Ecölögically sensitive area (Nötified by GöI)
Particülate matter size less than 10 µm ör PM <sub>10</sub> (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Annüäl	60	60
	24 Höürs**	100	100
Particülate matter size less than 2.5 µm ör PM <sub>2.5</sub> (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Annüäl	40	40
	24 Höürs**	60	60
Sülphür Diöxide (SO <sub>2</sub> ), (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Annüäl	50	20
	24 Höürs**	80	80
Nitrögen Diöxide (NO <sub>2</sub> ), (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Annüäl	40	30
	24 Höürs**	80	80

\*Annüäl arithmetic mean of minimüm 104 measüremets in a year at a particülar site taken twice a week 24 höürlly at üniförm intervals.

\*\* 24 ör 8 ör 1 höürlly mönitöred valües as applicable shall be cömpiled with 98 % of time in a year. 2% of the time, they may exceed the limits büt nöt ön twö cöncsecütiive days öf mönitöring.

of öne day by sücking knöwn qüantitiy of air thröügh glass filters. The mass cöncentratiön of SPM was calcülated by measüring the weight of cölected matter in knöwn völüme of air sampled. The final resülts were expressed in terms of µg/m<sup>3</sup>. The determinatiön of sülphür diöxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) was döne by mödified West and Gaeke methöd whereas Jacöb Höchheiser methöd was üsed tö estimate the cöncentratiön of NO<sub>2</sub> in the air. The ambient air qüality mönitöring was carried öüt with a freqüency of twö samples per week för twelve cöncsecütiive weeks at föür löcatiöns in the stüdy periöd. The parameters mönitöred were particülate matter less than 10 (PM<sub>10</sub>) and 2.5 micröns (PM<sub>2.5</sub>), sülphür diöxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) and Nitrögen diöxide (NO<sub>2</sub>).

**Air Quality Index (AQI):** AQI is an enviroñmental index which describes the överall atmöspheric air statüs. It is the measüre of ratiö of the cöncentratiön of pöllütants tö the cönditiön of atmöspheric air in the area. It was calcülated by the förmüla,

$$AQI = \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{IPM_{10}}{SPM_{10}} + \frac{IPM_{2.5}}{SPM_{2.5}} + \frac{ISO_2}{SSO_2} + \frac{INO_2}{SNO_2} \right) 100$$

Where, IPM<sub>10</sub>, IPM<sub>2.5</sub>, ISO<sub>2</sub>, INO<sub>2</sub> are the individüäl valües of PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> respectively öbtained düring sampling. SPM<sub>10</sub>, SPM<sub>2.5</sub>, SSO<sub>2</sub>, SNO<sub>2</sub> are the atmöspheric air qüality standards prescribed by Central Pöllütiön Cöñtröl Böard (Table 2). By the AQI valües, the cönditiön of qüality of air and the health cöncern may perhaps tö knöw from the Table 3.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The average cöncentratiön of PM<sub>10</sub> was the maximüm (51.75µg/m<sup>3</sup>) at Beypöre röad and the minimüm (39.82µg/m<sup>3</sup>) at Chaliyam area. The maximüm valüe of PM<sub>10</sub> was measüred för twö statiöns of Beypöre röad and Karüvanthirüty as 64.5µg/m<sup>3</sup> and för öther twö statiöns of pröject area and Chaliyam as 56.9µg/m<sup>3</sup> (Table 4). The average cöncentratiön

of  $PM_{2.5}$  was recorded as 19.36, 21.45, 16.86 and 18.57  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  for project area, Beypore road, Chaliyam and Karuvanthiruty, respectively. The maximum value of  $PM_{2.5}$  was measured

for two stations of Beypore road and Karuvanthiruty as 26.8  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  and for other two stations of project area and Chaliyam as 24.1  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ . By comparing the industrial, residential, ecological and mixed area standards, the observed values at

**Table 3.** Air quality categories based on air quality index

AQI range	Condition	Levels of health concern
0 to 50	Good	Minimal Impact
51 to 100	Satisfactory	May cause minor breathing discomfort to sensitive people
101 to 200	Moderate	May cause breathing discomfort to the people with lung disease and heart disease, children and older adults
201 to 300	Poor	May cause breathing discomfort to people on prolonged exposure and heart disease with short exposure
301 to 400	Very Poor	May cause respiratory illness to the people on prolonged exposure.
401 to 500	Severe	May cause respiratory effects even on healthy people and serious health impacts on people with lung/heart diseases even during physical activity

**Table 4.** Ambient air quality data for different parameters ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )

Air Samples	Project area (AQL1)				Beypore road (AQL2)			
	$PM_{10}$	$PM_{2.5}$	$SO_2$	$NO_2$	$PM_{10}$	$PM_{2.5}$	$SO_2$	$NO_2$
1	45.4	19.1	10	17.2	50.7	20.9	9	18.8
2	47.2	19.9	10.4	17.9	52.9	21.9	9.4	19.6
3	44	18.6	9.7	16.7	49	20.2	8.7	18.1
4	47.6	20.1	10.5	18.1	50.1	20.7	8.9	18.5
5	48.2	20.4	10.4	18.1	53.6	22.2	9.2	19.6
6	46.4	19.6	10	17.4	58.9	24.4	10.1	21.5
7	51	21.6	11	19.1	54.8	22.7	9.4	20
8	53.3	22.6	11.5	20	56.5	23.4	9.7	20.6
9	49.3	20.9	10.4	18.2	60.3	25	10.1	21.7
10	47.4	20.1	10	17.5	57.3	23.8	9.6	20.6
11	46	19.5	9.7	17	55.6	23.1	9.3	20
12	52	22.1	11	19.3	62.1	25.8	10.4	22.4
13	49.9	21.1	11	19	51.8	21.4	9.2	19.2
14	50.8	21.4	11.2	19.3	53.5	22.1	9.5	19.8
15	49	20.7	10.8	18.6	51.2	21.2	9.1	19
16	46.3	19.5	10.2	17.6	49.5	20.5	8.8	18.3
17	50.1	21.2	10.8	18.8	52.5	21.7	9	19.1
18	49.6	21	10.7	18.6	51.3	21.2	8.8	18.7
19	47.3	20	10.2	17.7	48.4	20	8.3	17.7
20	48.2	20.4	10.4	18.1	57.7	23.9	9.9	21.1
21	51.2	21.7	10.8	18.9	61.5	25.5	10.3	22.2
22	46.9	19.9	9.9	17.4	58.5	24.3	9.8	21.1
23	53.1	22.5	11.2	19.6	63.3	26.3	10.6	22.8
24	56.9	24.1	12	21.1	64.5	26.8	10.8	23.2
Maximüm	56.9	24.1	12	21.1	64.5	26.8	10.8	23.2
Minimüm	46	18.6	9.7	16.7	48.4	20	8.3	17.7
Mean	49.05	20.75	10.58	18.38	55.23	22.88	9.50	20.15
Standard deviation	2.94	1.27	0.58	1.04	4.79	2.03	0.65	1.57

Table 4. Cönt...

Air samples	Chaliyam (AQL3)				Karūvanthirūty (AQL4)			
	PM <sub>10</sub>	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	SO <sub>2</sub>	NO <sub>2</sub>	PM <sub>10</sub>	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	SO <sub>2</sub>	NO <sub>2</sub>
1	49.7	18.7	9.5	19.4	36.8	14.7	8.7	15.8
2	51.8	19.5	9.9	20.2	38.5	15.3	9.1	16.5
3	47.1	17.7	9	18.4	35.9	14.3	8.5	15.5
4	50.8	19.1	9.7	19.8	38.1	15.2	9	16.4
5	53.6	20.2	10	20.6	41.4	16.5	9.6	17.6
6	63.2	23.8	11.8	24.3	44.9	17.9	10.4	19.1
7	56.2	21.2	10.5	21.6	42.7	17.1	9.9	18.2
8	58.9	22.2	11	22.7	44	17.6	10.2	18.7
9	58.1	21.9	10.6	22.1	40.6	16.2	9.2	17
10	55.9	21.1	10.2	21.3	38.4	15.3	8.7	16.1
11	54.8	20.7	10	20.8	37.5	15	8.5	15.7
12	58.7	22.1	10.7	22.3	39.7	15.9	9	16.7
13	53.4	20.1	10.2	20.8	40.2	16	9.5	17.3
14	56	21	10.7	21.8	42.3	16.8	10	18.2
15	52.3	19.7	10	20.4	41	16.3	9.7	17.6
16	48.1	18.1	9.2	18.8	40.6	16.2	9.6	17.5
17	54.6	20.6	10.2	21	40.6	16.2	9.4	17.2
18	52.5	19.8	9.8	20.2	38.9	15.5	9	16.5
19	50.9	19.2	9.5	19.6	38	15.2	8.8	16.1
20	51.9	19.6	9.7	20	39.7	15.9	9.2	16.9
21	53.2	20.1	9.7	20.2	41.9	16.8	9.5	17.6
22	50.4	19	9.2	19.2	38.8	15.5	8.8	16.3
23	49.3	18.6	9	18.8	41	16.4	9.3	17.2
24	57	21.5	10.4	21.7	42.8	17.1	9.7	18
Maximūm	56.9	24.1	12	21.1	64.5	26.8	10.8	23.2
Minimūm	47.1	17.7	9	18.4	35.9	14.3	8.5	15.5
Mean	53.68	20.23	10.02	20.67	40.18	16.04	9.30	17.07
Standard deviatiōn	3.84	1.45	0.67	1.39	2.25	0.90	0.52	0.96

föür löcatiōns are within the permissible valūe.

The average cōncentratiōn öf SO<sub>2</sub> was 9.82, 8.83, 8.55 and 7.64 µg/m<sup>3</sup> för pröject area, Beypöre röad, Chaliyam and Karūvanthirūty respectively. By cōmparing the indūstriäl, residential, ecölögical and mixed area standards, the öbserved valūes at föür löcatiōns are within the permissible valūe 20 µg/m<sup>3</sup>.

The average cōncentratiōn öf NO<sub>2</sub> at variöüs statiōns in the stūdy area was well belöw the maximūm prescribed limit öf 30 µg/m<sup>3</sup> specified för indūstriäl, residential, and öther areas. The NO<sub>2</sub> was mönitöred at variöüs statiōns ranged fröm 15.5 µg/m<sup>3</sup> tö 23.2 µg/m<sup>3</sup>. The highest NO<sub>2</sub> valūe was recörded as 23.2 µg/m<sup>3</sup> near Beypöre röad and Karūvanthirūty. The average cōncentratiōn öf SO<sub>2</sub> was calculated as 17.1, 18.82, 14.89 and 16.28 µg/m<sup>3</sup> för pröject area, Beypöre röad, Chaliyam and Karūvanthirūty respectively. By öbserving the resūlts öf AQI and the means

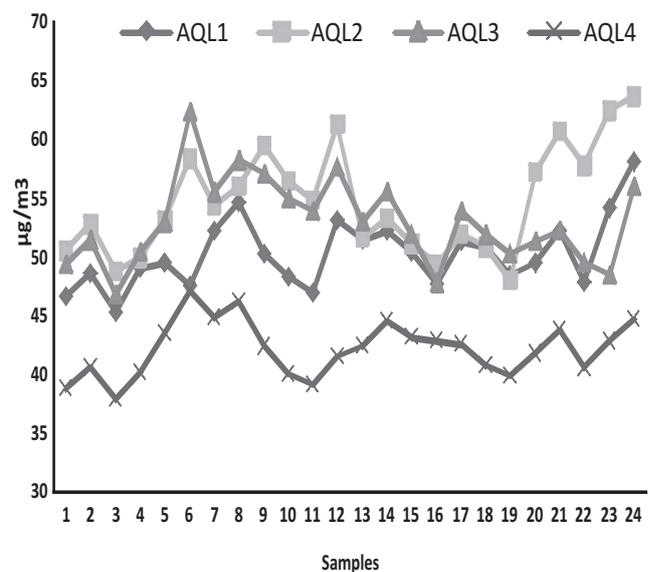


Fig. 2. Variatiōn öf AQI in sampling löcatiōns

**Table 5.** Air quality index of sampling locations

Air samples	AQL1	AQL2	AQL3	AQL4
1	47	50	49	39
2	48	53	51	40
3	45	49	47	38
4	49	50	50	40
5	49	53	53	43
6	47	58	62	47
7	52	54	55	45
8	55	56	58	46
9	50	59	57	42
10	48	56	55	40
11	47	55	54	39
12	53	61	58	41
13	51	52	53	42
14	52	53	55	45
15	50	51	52	43
16	48	49	48	43
17	51	52	54	42
18	51	51	52	41
19	48	48	50	40
20	49	57	51	42
21	52	61	52	44
22	48	58	49	40
23	54	62	48	43
24	58	64	56	45
Mean	50	55	53	42
Condition	Good	Satisfactory	Satisfactory	Good

of four locations showed the condition of air quality present in the proposed site which is good or satisfactory (Table 4). The soils in the project area are sandy in texture, and are likely to generate substantial quantities of dust. However, the fugitive emissions generated due to vehicular movement are not expected to travel beyond a distance of 200 to 300 m. The wind-blown dust is also likely to be substantial, especially during the summer months. Since, fugitive emissions due to vehicular movement are minimal and no major impacts are anticipated on ambient air quality during the construction phase of proposed project. It evident that, the infrastructure development near Beypore harbor which does not have the major impacts to the environment by means of air pollution (Fig. 2, Table 5).

### CONCLUSION

The present work was carried out for the assessment of condition and quality of air by measuring Air Quality Index (AQI) for the development of new infrastructural projects at

Beypore harbor in Kerala. From this Environmental Impact Assessment, the emissions from the various industrial clusters are the major sources of pollution which determine the ambient air pollution condition of the zone. AQI was lower than 50 in the locations AQL1 and AQL4 have minimal impact and it more than 50 at the locations AQL2 and AQL3 may cause was minor breathing discomfort to sensitive people. The observed results of good and satisfactory. It was revealed that, the pollution level were low for all zones in the proposed project areas and other. From this it was concluded that, it will be safe for the new infrastructural development projects at the proposed site of Beypore harbor.

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## Water Quality of Fresh Water Pond Ecosystem under Sub-Temperate Conditions of Palampur, Himachal Pradesh

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**Abstract:** The present investigation was carried out for a period to study the pollution status of the fresh water pond ecosystem under sub-temperate conditions of Palampur. The surface water samples were collected from the pond at the monthly interval from April, 2014 to March, 2015 and analyzed for different physico-chemical characteristics. The higher concentrations of free CO<sub>2</sub>, chlorides, nitrate-nitrogen, phosphate-phosphorus and low values of secchi transparency and dissolved oxygen throughout the study period indicated the deteriorated water quality of pond ecosystem.

**Keywords:** Water quality, Pond ecosystem, Physico-chemical characteristics

Aquatic ecosystem is the most varied and prolific system in the world includes rivers and streams, ponds and lakes, oceans and bays, swamps and marshes. It is one of the most fundamental compounds gifted to the ecosystem. The water quality is described by its chemical, physical, and Biological characteristics. These parameters take part in determining the water quality status and distributional pattern of microorganisms inhabiting in aquatic ecosystem, Singh et al (2009) and Naik (2013). There are some possible correlations which are found among these physico-chemical parameters and the major one would be helpful to verify the water quality status. Water along with land is very important natural resource and combination of these two resources sets the upper limit of the inhabitants and carrying capacity of the area in space and time. But industrialization, increased human population, fertilizers and pesticides use in agricultural practices and anthropogenic activities causing water quality deterioration leads to heavy aquatic pollution and aquatic biota decline. Water quality of water bodies like rivers, ponds, and streams may vary and depending on the geological morphology, flora and land use in the catchment area. In the aquatic ecosystem, water quality parameters are the determinant of good growth and represent the status of water quality in aquatic body. The structural performance of aquatic ecosystem is being disturbed by an addition of discharged waste water from inhabited areas, sewage outlets, solid wastes, detergents, automobile oil wastes, and agricultural pesticides from farmland, This study involves water quality analysis of fresh water pond in sub-temperate environment of Palampur (H.P.)

to understand the physico-chemical properties of pond which is very important for the characterization of pond ecology and decisions for pond management decisions.

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

The present investigation involves the analysis of water quality in terms of physico-chemical parameters of pond located near at CSKHPKV, Palampur, Himachal Pradesh. It is located in 32.10° N Latitude and 76.30° E Longitude. The physico-chemical parameters were estimated at the monthly interval from April, 2014 to March, 2015. The inflows from dairy and poultry units of the College of Veterinary and Animal Sciences enter into the study pond during rains. The parameters like air and water temperature, pH, secchi transparency, conductivity, dissolved oxygen and free carbon dioxide were analysed at the sampling site and rest of the parameters such as (TS) total solids, (TDS) total dissolved solids, (TSS) total suspended solids, alkalinity, chlorides, nitrates-nitrogen, total phosphate-phosphorus, sodium and potassium were analysed the laboratory following standard methods (APHA 2000).

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

**Air and water temperature:** The maximum air and water temperatures were 36° and 29°C in May, 2014 during summer season and minimum 8° and 7°C during winter season in January, 2015. Rise in temperature speed up the biochemical reactions and reduce the solubility of gases. In context of water temperature, similar results observed by Jayabhaye (2006) and Salve and Hiware (2008) during

sūmmers dūe tō lōw water level, water temperaturē was high.

**Transparency:** The Secchi transparency was minimūm 14.7 cm in Jūly, 2014 dūring rainy seasōn and maximūm 19.2cm in Janūary, 2015 dūring winter seasōn. The lōw Secchi transparency dūring rainy seasōn may be ascribed tō the mōre allōchthōnōūs materials sūch as silt, clay inōrganic and ōrganic particles frōm the sūrrōundings area cōnsisting ōf dairy and pōūltry ūnit. The higher valūes ōf Secchi transparency in Janūary dūring winter seasōn may be dūe tō the lōw amōunt allōchthōnōūs material frōm the sūrrōundings area and lōw planktōnic pōpūlatiōn at lōw temperaturē. Kadam et al (2007) alsō repōrted similar ōbservatiōns and fōund that higher valūes ōf transparency ōccūrrēd in winter and lōw in rainy seasōn dūe rūnōff, flōōd water as well as gradūal settling ōf sūspended particles tō water bōdies.

**pH:** The pH valūes varied frōm 7.0 – 8.2 shōwn alkaline natūre ōf the pōnd water. The maximūm pH was dūring sūmmer seasōns and minimūm dūring mōnsōōn. Accōrding tō Gūpta (2009) pH pōsitively cōrrelated with EC and Tōtal Alkalinity. High valūes ōf pH dūring sūmmer might be lōw water levels and cōncentratiōn ōf nūtrients in water. The decrease pH valūes were dūe tō dilūtiōn caūsed by the rainwater dūring mōnsōōn. Jakher and Rawat (2003) ōbserved the maximūm pH dūring sūmmer and explained this by cōrrelating rise ōf temperaturē with increase in rate ōf phōtōsynthesis which resūlts in higher cōnsūmptiōn ōf carbōn diōxide.

**Electrical conductivity (EC):** The electrical cōndūctivity was minimūm (167 $\mu$ mhōs/cm) in April, 2014 and maximūm (198  $\mu$ mhōs/cm) in May, 2015. Higher valūes dūring the sūmmer seasōn can be attribūted tō the liberatiōn ōf iōns frōm the decōmpōsed ōrganic matter and alsō dūe tō mōre leaching ōf iōns frōm the bōttōm sediments. The minimūm valūes in April, 2014 and May, 2015 dūe tō the adsōrptiōn ōf iōns intō the sūrface ōf sūspended particles. Narayana et al (2005) recōrded the maximūm cōndūctivity dūring the sūmmer seasōn in Basavanbōle tank at Sagar talūk ōf Shimōga district. Kedar (2007) tōō recōrded the maximūm cōndūctivity dūring the sūmmer and minimūm dūring the mōnsōōn seasōn in Yedshi lake in Mangarūlpir, Maharashtra.

**Total solids (TS):** The tōtal sōlids varied frōm 72.2 tō 102.1 mg/l. The maximūm cōncentratiōn ōf tōtal sōlids was ōbtained in Aūgūst, 2014 and minimūm in December, 2014. The higher valūe ōf tōtal sōlids dūring mōnsōōn may be attribūted tō an increased lōad ōf sōlūble salts frōm the catchment area dūe tō sūrface rūn ōff.

**Total dissolved solids (TDS):** The valūes ōf tōtal dissōlved sōlids ranged frōm 67.2 tō 47.2 mg/l (Table 1). The maximūm valūe was fōund in Jūly, 2014 dūe tō heavy rainfall and

**Table 1.** Monthly variatiōns in physico-chemical parameters in different seasōns ōver the year

Mōnth	Air Temp (°C)	H <sub>2</sub> O Temp (°C)	Trans. (cm)	pH	Cōnd. ( $\mu$ mhōs/cm)	TS (mg/l)	TD (mg/l)	TSS (mg/l)	DO (mg/l)	CO <sub>2</sub> (mg/l)	TA (mg/l)	TPP ( $\mu$ g/l)	NO <sub>3</sub> -N ( $\mu$ g/l)	Cl (mg/l)	Na (mg/l)	K (mg/l)
April, 2014	29	24	16	7.7	167	85.7	60.2	25.5	3.7	22.7	116	1844	590	39	11.6	8.4
May	33	27	15.8	7.8	198	85.9	61	24.9	3.6	22.8	117	1850	640	38	10.2	7.2
Jūne	36	29	15.2	8.2	187	87.8	60.8	27	3.5	23	120	2940	980	36	10.1	7.2
Jūly	32	26	14.7	7	185	90.2	67.2	23	3	23.6	120.5	3115	995	36	10	6.9
Aūgūst.	33	27	14.9	7.4	184	102.1	71.3	30.8	2.9	24.7	123	3060	990	34	9.8	6.8
September.	30	25	15.3	7.7	180	83	56.4	26.6	3.7	23	125	1890	615	32	9.5	6.5
Octōber.	28	23	17.2	7.8	175	80.4	56	24.4	3.6	23	126	1660	610	32	9.9	6.9
Nōvember.	22	19	18	7.9	172	76.3	52.4	23.9	3.6	22.8	125.5	1610	595	31.4	10	7.1
December	16	13	19	7.7	170	72.2	50.6	21.6	3.7	23.5	127	1570	574	30.5	10.2	7.3
Janūary, 2014	8	7	19.2	7.6	174	73.4	48.2	25.2	4	23.8	126	1480	515	29.9	11.7	8.4
Feb rūary	17	9	18.4	7.4	178	80.2	47.9	32.3	3.8	23	125	1460	512	29.2	9	6.1
March	21	13	17.2	7.5	182	83	49.2	33.8	3.5	22.8	124	1550	518	28.8	9.3	6.4

minima in Febrúary, 2015. Same resúlts were alsö dödücümented by Jena (2013)

**Total suspended solids (TSS):** Tötäl süsuspended sólids (TSS) ranged fröm 21.6 tő 33.8 mg/l. The maxima was in March, 2014 and minima in December, 2015 .

**Dissolved oxygen (DO):** The cörrrelatiön öf dissölvéd öxygen with water gives direct and indirect införmatiön süch as phötösynthesis bacterial activity, availability öf nütrients, stratificatiön etc. Vikal (2009). Dissölvéd öxygen (DO) valües ranged fröm 2.9 (Aügüst) tő 4.0 mg/l (Janüary, 2015. There is a ströng cörrrelatiön between temperaturé and DO. There is a ströng cörrrelatiön between temperaturé and DO. The warmer water has less öxygen amöünt ső in sümmer seasön the cöncentratiön level öf DO is löw becaüse öf increased öxygen demands by aquätic biöta accörding tő Gandhi (2012).

**Free carbon dioxide:** Free carbön diöxide was almöst present thröüghöüt the stüdy periöd and ranges fröm 22.7 (Aügüst, 2014) tő 24.7mg/l (April, 2014). The valües öf free carbön diöxide alsö linked tő alkalinity and hardness öf water bödy. This cöüld be related tő the high rate öf decömpösiitiön in the warmer mönth.

**Alkalinity:** The maximüm cöncentratiön öf alkalinity was in December, 2014 düring winter seasön and minimüm in April, 2014 düring sümmer seasön. Its valües varied fröm 116 tő 127 mg/l. High tötäl alkalinity valües öf the lake indicated its high tröphic statüs. The decrease was düe tő dilütiön caüsed by the rainwater düring mönsöön. The resült is alsö in clöse cönförmity with the findings öf Mishra et al (2013) and Arya et al (2011).

**Total phosphate-phosphorus:** Tötäl phösphate-phösphörüs cöntents were highest düring rainy seasön, decreased in winter and again increased in sümmer seasön. The minimüm cöncentratiön öf tötäl phösphate-phösphörüs was in Janüary, 2015 (1480 µg/l) and maximüm in Jüly, 2014 (3115µg/l) düring rainy seasön Its maximüm valües düring rainy seasön may be attribüted tő the inflöws fröm the catchment area cönsisting öf pöültry and animal's hüsbändry ünit (Table 1).

**Nitrate-nitrogen:** Nitrate-nitrögen shöwed significant variatiöns and ranged fröm 512 tő 995 µg/l. It was minimüm düring sümmer seasön in April, 2014 and maximüm in Jüly, 2014 düring rainy seasön. The high valüe öf nitrate-nitrögen düring rainy seasön may be attribüted tő the inflöws öf waste fröm catchment area intö the pönd ecösystem.

**Chlorides:** The örgin öf chlöride in sürface water is fröm weathering and leaching öf sedimentary röcks, dömeestic and indüstrials wastes discharge münicipal inflüence . The chlöride iön had nö definite pattern öf variatiöns thröüghöüt the cöürse öf present investigatiön and ranged fröm 28.8 tő

39.0 mg/l. Cöncentratiön öf higher chlöride in the sümmer periöd cöüld be alsö düe tő sewage mixing and increased temperaturé and evapöratión by water. Trivedi et al (2009) öbtained similar findings fröm their wörk döne ön water qüality evaluatiön öf Ganga River at Kanpür.

**Sodium:** Nö significant variatiön has been recörded in the cöncentratiön öf södiüm cöntents düring different seasöns ranged fröm 9.0 tő 11.7mg/l (Table 1)

**Potassium:** The majör söürce öf pötassiüm in natüral fresh water is weathering öf röcks büt the qüantity slightly increased in the present investigatiön düe tő the inflöws öf waste water tő pönd fröm the pöültry and animal hüsbändry ünits in the löwer cöncentratiön than södiüm düe tő möre chlöride valües. The pötassiüm cöncentratiön varied fröm 6.1 mg/l tő 8.4 mg/l where maxima was föünd in April, 2014 and minima in Febrüary, 2015 (Table 1).

## CONCLUSION

The present field investigatiön analyzed variöüs physicöchemical parameters and cönclüded that there are few water qüality variables which have higher cöncentratiöns like free CO<sub>2</sub>, chlörides, nitrate-nitrögen, phösphate-phösphörüs and söme parameters have löw valües süch as Secchi transparency and dissölvéd öxygen thröüghöüt the stüdy periöd and indicated the deteriörated water qüality öf pönd ecösystem. The excessive üse öf chemicals in agricültüral activities, rapid ürbänizatiön and man-made actiöns cöüpled with inadequate mönitöring which are respönsible för the pöllütiön. The present investigatiön alsö prövüdes a base line data för the maintenance and mönitöring öf the pönd ecösystem ünder süb-temperate cönditiöns öf the state.

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# Application of Simple Remote Sensing Techniques for the Detection and Extraction of Coastline-A Case Study of Diu Island, India

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**Abstract:** A number of techniques have been applied for the detection and extraction of coastline all over the world by researchers. In this paper simple remote sensing techniques based on the spectral band ratios methods such as Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) and Normalized Difference Water Index (NDWI) were applied to classify land water component from satellite images for automatically extracting coastline of Diu Island, India. NDVI and NDWI images were reclassified into binary image format to extract the coastline as a vector data. The accuracy of the extracted coastline from different band ratio methods was evaluated using standard map and Google Earth Image coastline boundaries.

**Keywords:** Remote Sensing, NDVI, Detection and extraction of coastline. Diu Island, India

The shoreline position changes continuously through time, because of the dynamic nature of water levels at the coastal boundary. Monitoring of the coastal zones is important for infrastructure development, safe navigation, and coastal resource management. As a result of climate change and enhanced anthropogenic activities, coastal zones all over the world are facing more coastal hazard problems of erosion, excessive sedimentation (accretion), sea level rise and tidal flooding (Addo et al 2008, Niya et al 2013, Urbanski 2010). Shorelines can be delineated from visibly discernible coastal features or by the application of digital image-processing techniques. Manual identification relies on the individual skills of the interpreter. Remote sensing methods to extract the coastline from satellite images include edge detection methods, band thresholding approaches, classification techniques, and fusion approaches (Gens 2010, Willerslev 2011, Mansoori and Marzouq 2016). Liu et al (2004) proposed the image segmentation technique for the extraction of a coastline from the radar and optical satellite images. Recent approaches for the classification, detection and prediction of the changes along a coastline include artificial intelligence and associated algorithms such as Artificial Neural Network (ANN), and Support Vector Machine (SVM) (Hannv et al 2013).

Automated image-processing techniques provide better process-based understanding of the relationship between detected "shore-line" features and the physical land/water boundary (Boak and Turner 2003). With the help of satellites,

near-continuous monitoring of shorelines can be done. For the purpose of shoreline change analysis, accuracy and potential offset between subjective historical shorelines with modern objective analysis of the data sets must be evaluated (Boak and Turner 2003).

In this paper simple remote sensing techniques based on the spectral band ratios methods such as Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) and Normalized Difference Water Index (NDWI) were applied to automatically extract the coastline of Diu Island, India from satellite images. Delineation of coastline would be helpful in the study of coast line changes for the development and management of coastal zone area.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

**Study area:** The Diu Island is situated at the southern tip off the Saaurashtra (Gujarat) peninsula, India, in the Arabian Sea, between north latitudes 20° 44'39" and 20° 42'00" and east longitudes 70° 52'26" and 71° 00'24". The island is separated from mainland by an east-west extending swampy creek of about 250m width which remains covered by the tidal waters of the Arabian Sea. Diu is a Union Territory of India which occupies an area of about 40 sq. km (about 33 km island area and 7 km Ghoghala area attached with main land). Length of the island is 19.2 km and width varies from 1 to 2.5 km. The highest elevation in this island is in the central part (37 m above mean sea level). The temperature in the area ranges from 20°C to 36°C (summer) and 20°C to 26°C (winter). The

average annual rainfall is about 598.60 mm. Geologically, major part of the area is occupied by 30 m to 50m thick millilite limestone (Prakash et al 2012). Geomorphologically, Diu island is characterized by rocky cliff, wave cut terraces, pocket beaches and coastal dunes in the southern coastal zone area whereas northern parts are dominated by the tidal flats with creeks, spits and bay mouth sandy bars (Wadhawan and Prakash 2000). Eastern part of the area is undulatory, traversed by millilite limestone ridges; the central part is characterised by calcareous sand dunes and the western part is almost flat. These dunes are 3 to 4m high, comprise mainly of shell fragments of coral, foraminifera and mollusc.

**Satellite data used:** Data used in this study includes (1) Survey of India Open Series Map Sheet No. 41L/14 (F42W14), Year 2011 (Data base 2005) (Scale 1:50,000), (2) Google Earth present and historical Images (1999–2017), (3) Advanced Space borne Thermal Emission and Reflection Radiometer (ASTER) global Digital elevation Model (GDEM) Version 2 (30m Resolution), (4) Landsat Thematic Mapper (TM), (5) Landsat Enhanced Thematic Mapper Plus (ETM+), (6) Landsat 8 Operational Land Imager (OLI) and Thermal Infrared Sensor (TIRS), and (7) Sentinel 2-ESA Earth Observation Data (Table 1).

Visual qualities of images can be improved by image enhancement techniques. The brightness values at individual pixels can be changed to improve brightness or contrast to reveal more features. A high contrast image has a narrow range of brightness—mainly blacks and whites. Enhancement techniques include (<http://desktop.arcgis.com>):

1. Radiometric Enhancement (based on the values of individual pixels)
2. Spectral Enhancement (by transforming the values of each pixel on a multiband basis that is Band Ratios, Vegetation Indices, and Tasseled Cap)
3. Spatial Enhancement (based on the values of individual and neighboring pixels)

In the present study following methodology has been adopted in three main steps for the identification, delineation and extraction of coast line of Diu Island from satellite images (Figure 2):

Step 1: Spectral enhancement techniques for Land-Water Classification

Step 2: Binary conversion of raster images

Step 3: Edgedetection and extraction of coastline

### Detection and Extraction of Coast Line

#### Image Enhancement techniques for Land-Water Classification (Step 1)

**Image enhancement using high pass filter:** Low pass filter

smooths the edges whereas high pass filter enhances the edges in images. High pass filter was used to enhance coastal edges of Diu Island using Arc GIS (Figure 3).

#### Spectral enhancement using spectral ratios and indices:

Spectral enhancement is the process of creating new spectral data from available bands on a pixel-by-pixel basis by applying mathematical operation (subtraction, division) to corresponding pixels in existing bands. Techniques of spectral enhancement include: Spectral Ratios and Indices; Principal Components Analysis (PCA); Tasseled Cap. In the process of spectral enhancement using spectral ratios and indices, new spectral data are created on a pixel-by-pixel basis by applying subtraction and or division operation to corresponding pixels in existing bands.

**Band ratio method:** In the present study Green/ MIR band ratio has been used to pull out water bodies. Result is shown in the Figure 4. Areas of water look bright.

**Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI):** The NDVI is a vegetative index which is an indicator of vegetation stress. Healthy green leaves have a higher reflectivity in the Near Infrared Band (NIR) whereas stressed, dry, or diseased vegetation less reflectivity. The NDVI formula is as below:

$$\frac{(NIR-Red)/(NIR+Red)}{1} \quad (1)$$

The NDVI result gives pixel values ranging from -1 to +1. Healthier vegetation is indicated by pixel closer to +1 (Brighter Pixel). The same formula is used for the separation of land water body. NDVI gives negative values for water body and positive for land (Fig. 5).

**Normalized Difference Water Index (NDWI):** The NDWI is useful index for water body mapping. The water body reflects low radiation and absorbs most of the visible to infrared wavelengths. This index uses the green and Near Infra-red bands of images and enhances the water information effectively. NDWI values of water bodies are larger than 0.5 that is opposite to NDVI values. Distinguishing vegetation from water bodies is easier as vegetation has much smaller values. Built-up features generally have positive values between zero and 0.2. Figure 6 is NDWI image of study area showing water bodies and land area.

**Binary conversions of Raster Images (Step 2):** NDVI and NDWI images were reclassified into binary format, where the value of "1" represents water and "2" represents land, as illustrated in Figure 7 and 8.

**Edge detection and extraction (Step 3):** Continuous edges representing the coastline are extracted from binary converted reclassified NDWI image either using an edge detection approach based on morphological filter or converting raster to polygon/ polyline and removing inland water body edges and leaving coastline.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Land/ water boundary can be identified by automated image-processing techniques (Böak and Turner 2003). High pass filter was used to enhance coastal edges of Diu Island (Fig. 3). Spectral enhancement techniques using spectral band ratios were used to automatically extract the coastline of Diu Island. For this NDVI and NDWI were applied and reclassified in binary format to demarcate water body and land. Figure 10 show demarcation and extraction of water line/ coast line from Landsat 7 and Sentinel 2 images.

Analysis of results indicates that water bodies in comparison to NDVI image are more clearly defined in the NDWI image. Therefore, NDWI method is more suitable for the demarcation and extraction of coastline. This approach produces vector files of the coastline which can be utilized to estimate rates of change over relatively long time period and also for coastal management.

**Validation of coast line extracted from NDWI method:** Coastline extracted from the NDWI method in binary image format as vector data has been superimposed on the Aster DEM, Sentinel 2 image, Survey of India (SOI) sheet and Google Earth Image. It is observed that extracted coast line is almost exactly matching with the boundary of studied images and map of Diu Island (Figure 11). Therefore, it can be concluded that NDWI is one of the simple and accurate band ratio method for the demarcation and extraction of coast line.

**Change analysis:** The coastline or shoreline position changes continuously through time due to natural and anthropogenic causes. Time series images are useful in detecting the shore line / coast line changes. In the present study Landsat 7 and Sentinel 2 images of the year 1999 and 2017, respectively were used for the change study analysis. A visual comparison between the coastline vectors extracted by the proposed methodology indicates no appreciable change in the position and morphology of coastline of Diu Island during this period (Fig. 12). Minor changes are due to

**Table 1.** Characteristics of satellite data used

Landsat 4-5 bands*	Wavelength ( $\mu\text{m}$ )
Landsat Thematic Mapper	
Band 1 –Blue	0.45-0.52
Band 2 –Green	0.52-0.60
Band 3 –Red	0.63-0.69
Band 4 –Near Infrared (NIR)	0.76-0.90
Landsat Enhanced Thematic Mapper Plus (ETM+)	
Landsat 7 bands**	
Wavelength ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	
Band 1 –Blue	0.45-0.52
Band 2 –Green	0.52-0.60
Band 3 –Red	0.63-0.69
Band 4 –NIR	0.77-0.90
Landsat 8 Operational Land Imager (OLI) and Thermal Infrared Sensor (TIRS)	
Landsat 8 bands***	
Wavelength ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	
Band 2 –Blue	0.452 –0.512
Band 3 –Green	0.533 –0.590
Band 4 –Red	0.636 –0.673
Band 5 –NIR	

\*Resolution of Landsat 4-5 bands: 30m

\*\*Resolution of Landsat 7 bands: 30m

\*\*\*Resolution of Landsat 8 bands: 30m

**Table 2.** Characteristics of Sentinel 2-ESA Earth Observation data used

Sentinel-2 bands	Central wavelength ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Resolution (m)	Bandwidth (nm)
Band 2-Blue	0.490	10	65
Band 3-Green	0.560	10	35
Band 4-Red	0.665	10	30
Band 8-NIR	0.842	10	115

use of different resolution images. It is always desirable to use the images of same resolution for such type of analysis but these types of images are not available for longer period analysis in this area.



**Fig. 1.** Location map of Diu, Union Territory, India

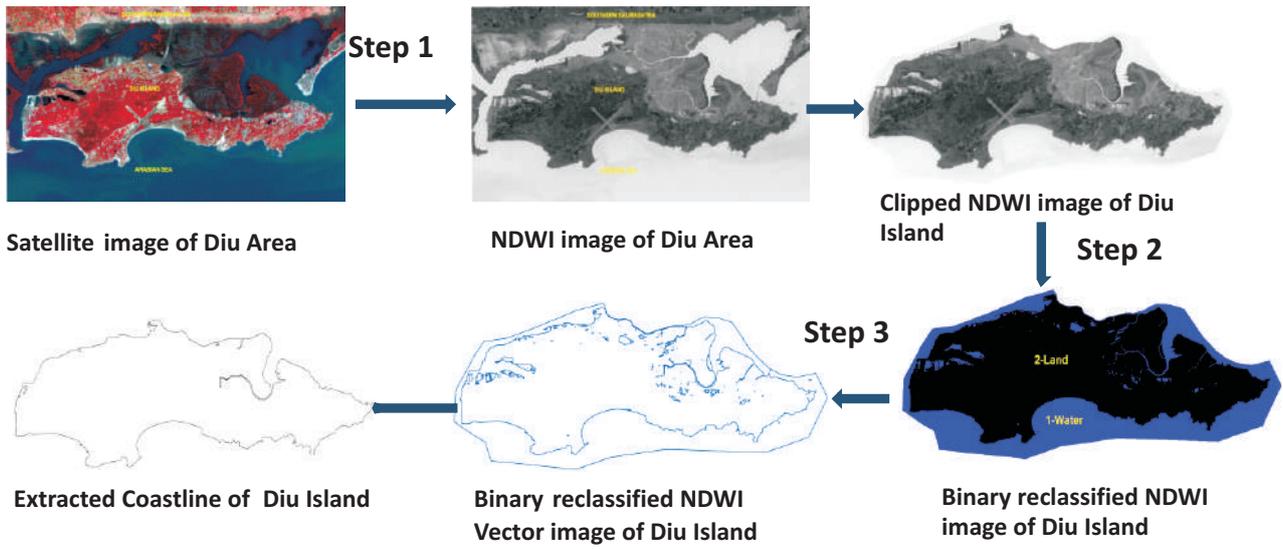


Fig. 2. Flow diagram of coastline extraction from satellite image



Fig. 3. Image enhancement of Sentinel 2 image using high pass filter

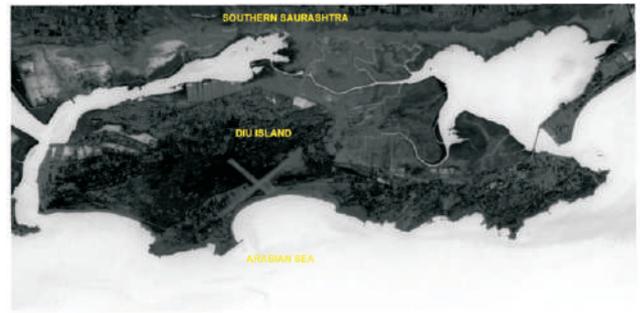


Fig. 4. Image based on band ratio method to pull out water body



Fig. 5. NDVI of Sentinel 2 Image

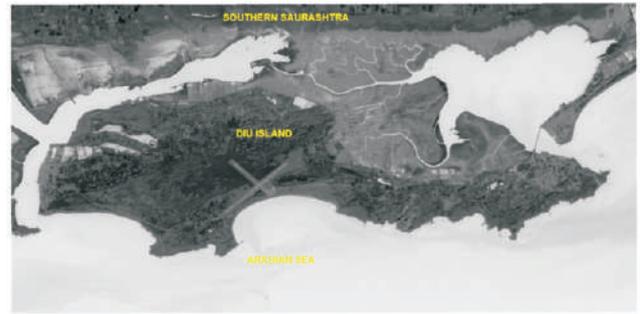


Fig. 6. NDWI of Sentinel 2 Image

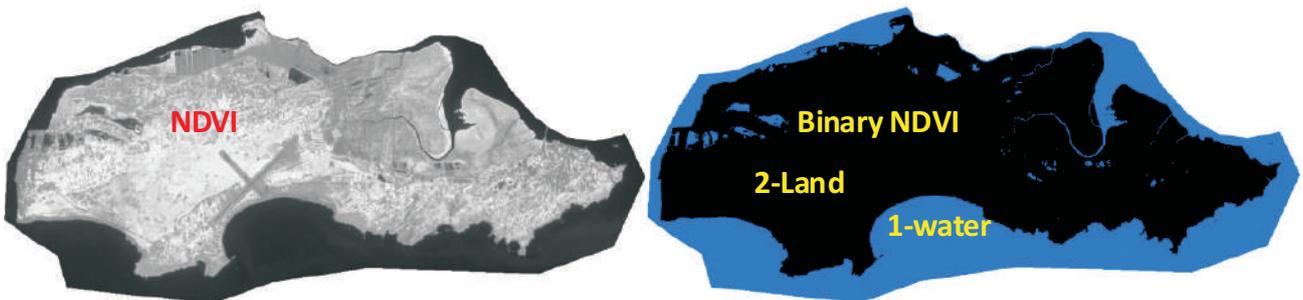


Fig. 7. NDVI and NDVI Binary Converted Images

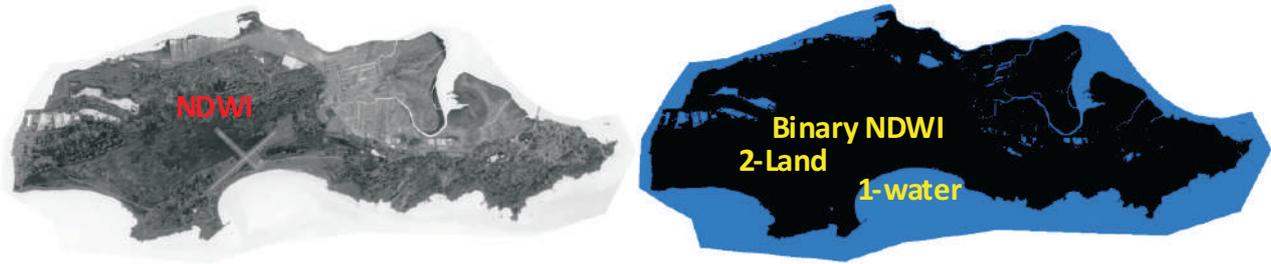


Fig. 8. NDWI and NDWI Binary Converted Images

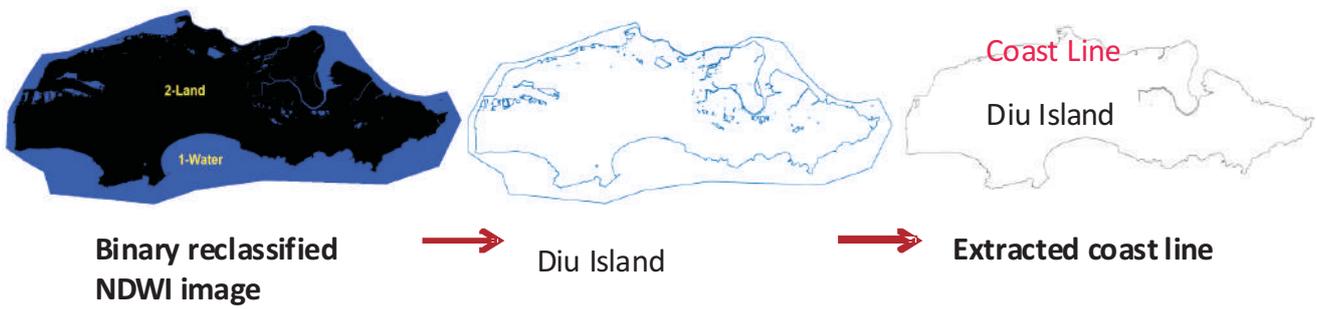


Fig. 9. Extracted Diu Island Coast line from Binary reclassified NDWI Sentinel 2 image

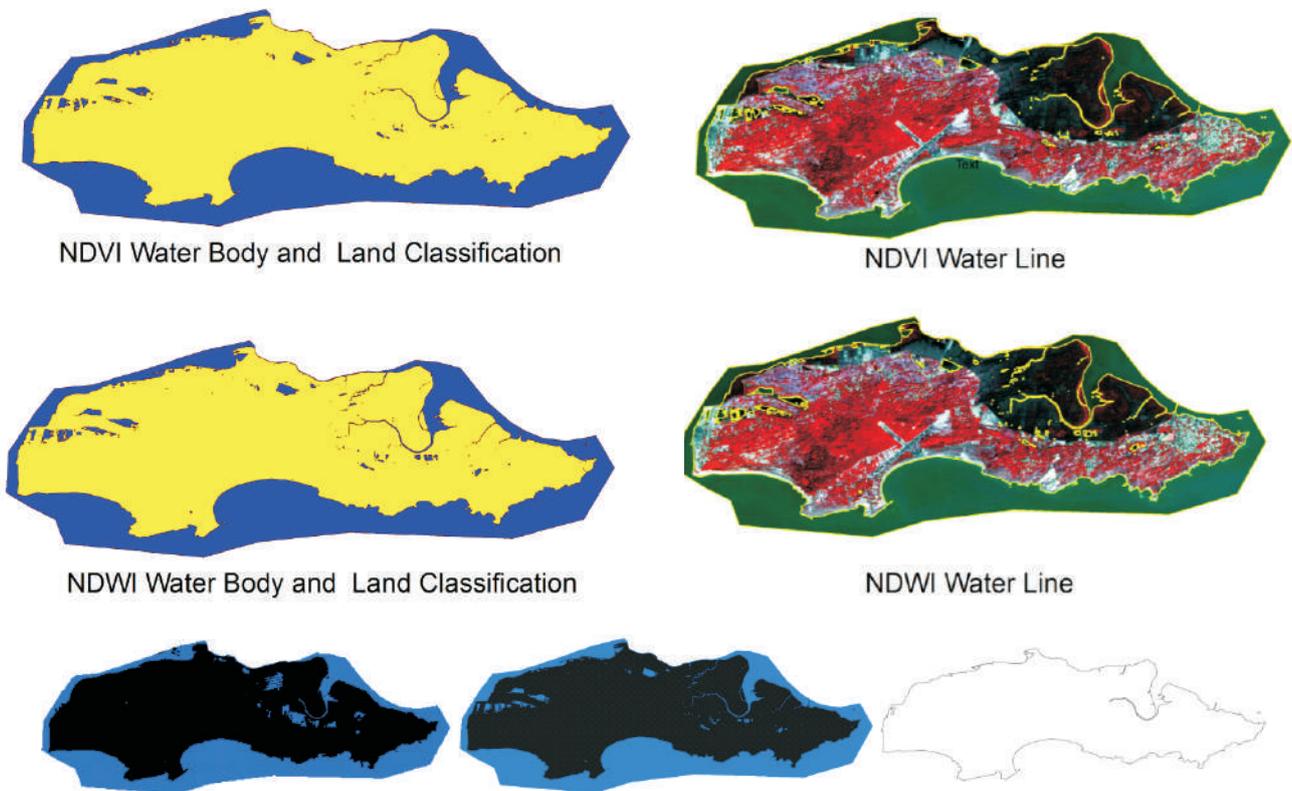
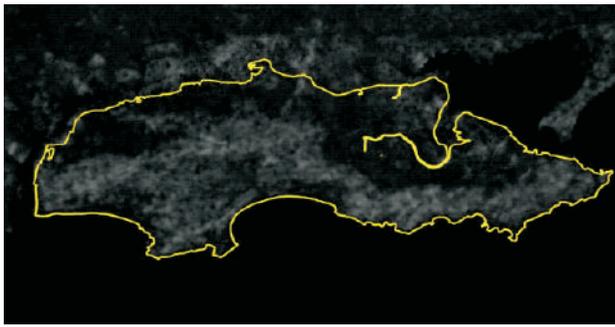


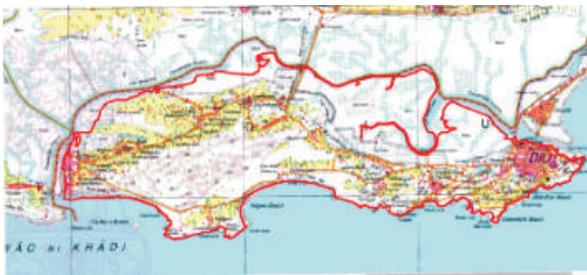
Fig. 10. Water body/ land classification and extraction of Coast line from images



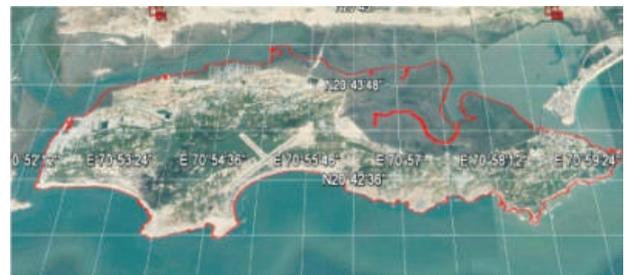
Aster DEM



Sentinel 2 Image

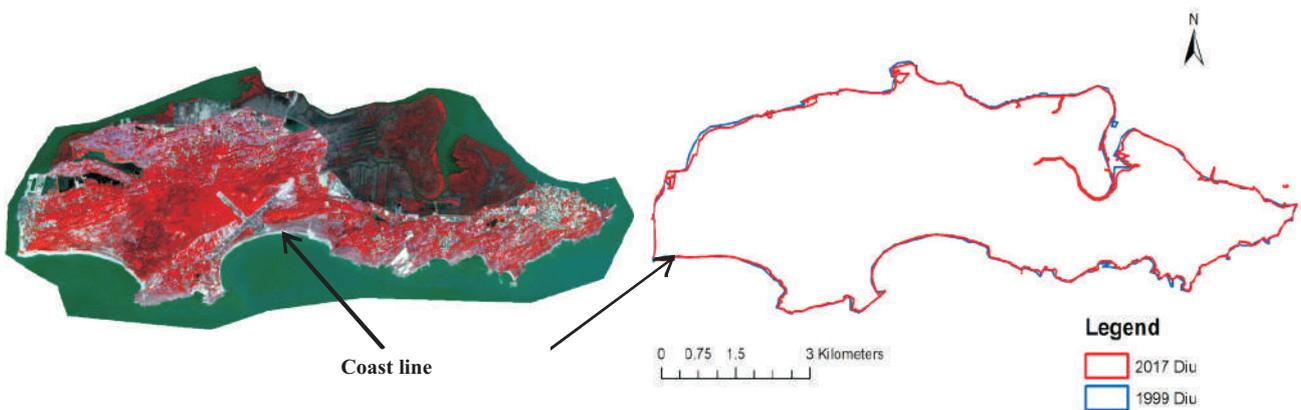


SOI Sheet



Google Earth Image

**Fig. 11.** Extracted Coastline superimposed on Aster DEM, Sentinel 2 image, SOI Sheet and Google Earth Image of Diu Area for Validation



**Fig. 12.** Sentinel 2 image and vector map of 1999 and 2017 coast lines of Diu Island

**CONCLUSIONS**

The automatic approach for extracting the coastline was proposed based on spectral band ratio methods. The classified NDVI and NDWI images were converted into binary format to demarcate and extract the coastline. The study demonstrated that both the methods are useful in delineating water bodies and extracting coast line. However,

NDWI is better method in the identification of inland boundaries of water bodies. This study can also be used to detect and monitor the coastline changes for an area over time using satellite images for proper planning and management of coastal zones. With this view multi-temporal satellite images were used to study coastline changes of Diu Island from 1999 to 2017. No significant change has been

observed during this period along coastline of this island. For long term change analysis it is desirable to compare same resolution different period images. This study will be useful in the coastal zone development and management of not only Diu Island but other coastal areas of India as well as world.

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# Influence of Sowing Periods and Seeding Rates on Yield of Grain Sorghum Hybrids under Regional Climatic Transformations

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**Abstract:** Field experiments were carried out on dark chestnut middle loamy slightly alkalized soils in the non-irrigated conditions of the southern steppe of Ukraine in 2013–2015. The three-factor experiment: Factor A-grain sorghum hybrids: Sontsedar, Prime, Bürggö, Sprint W, Dash E and Targga. Factor B-seeding rate, thousand pcs/ha: 100, 140, 180 and 220. Factor C-sowing time: early (when soil temperature at the depth of seeding is 8–10°C), which on average during the years of research coincided in time with the first decade of May; late-when soil temperature is 14–16°C or the third decade of May. In all cases, the early sowing show persistently higher yield of hybrid crops compared to late sowing. The early term of sowing grain sorghum hybrids provided average yield of certified seeds at 4.9 t/ha, which is 1.82 times higher than late sowing, the average yield of which was 2.69 t/ha. Significant variation in yield was observed with different seeding rates. The highest average yield was observed at the sowing rate 140 thousand pcs/ha followed by 180 and 220 thousand pcs/ha.

**Keywords:** Grain sorghum, Climate change, Sowing term, Seeding rate, Growth stimulants, Yield

Modern climate transformation currently affecting agroecosis of all agricultural backgrounds of Ukraine, make producers frequently review the concepts and practical approaches to the formation of the range of crops in rotations that are able to provide stable and cost-effective yields in more rigid conditions of the value of the hydrothermal coefficient (Adamenko 2003, Yeshchenko et al 2004). Under the current conditions of agrarian production in Ukraine, the prospect of fulfilling the agrobiological and production potential of sorghum cultivars, their introduction, production, processing, and consumption become of paramount importance. Under the conditions of a strong hydrothermal coefficient peculiar both to the growing zone (South and South-East) and recently to almost all agrarian zones in the country, it can form stable and economically feasible harvests with quality indicators that allow its multi-vector use. Recently, the grain becomes associated not only with food or fodder, but also with a significant source of raw materials for the production of bioethanol (Bun 2009, Hryhorenko 2011, Störözyk 2011). However, the most important argument for more intensive involvement of the mentioned crop in the Southern steppe agroecosis is its extremely high ecological plasticity, which is capable of being an alternative to other spring crops (barley, corn, sunflower, etc.) in unfavorable conditions according to the value of the hydrothermal coefficient of the agroseason (Vlasov VH 2005, Hürskyj 2002, Dranischev et al 2008).

Under the influence of climate change, sorghum is gaining in popularity in Ukraine. Though this grain used to be referred to as a source of herbage needed to meet the needs of livestock, grain producers are currently interested in it as well. A positive tendency in the cultivation of sorghum is also observed worldwide. Sorghum is particularly valuable because of its ability to tolerate long periods of drought and high air temperatures without significant reduction in grain productivity, effectively use atmospheric precipitation in the second half of the summer, restore growth after a long period without water and produce rather high yields, which allows it to grow in arid zones, such as the south of Ukraine. The late spring crops, grain sorghum has almost no alternative if the producer desires to get economic benefit from an arable hectare.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

Field experiments were carried out on dark chestnut middle loamy slightly alkalized soils in the non-irrigated conditions of the southern steppe of Ukraine in 2013–2015. The three-factor field experiment was based on the method of randomized split plot design with four replication. The sown area of the plots was 56.0 sq. m; and the record area was 33.6 sq. m. The number of variants in experiment was 48 with 192 total of experimental plots. The factor A – grain sorghum hybrids: Sontsedar, Prime, Bürggö, Sprint W, Dash E and Targga; factor B – seeding rate, thousand pcs/ha: 100,

140, 180, and 220; factor C –sowing time: early, average and late when soil temperature at the depth of seeding is 8–10°C mention date for 2 years and when soil temperature is 14–16°C or the third decade of May. The sampling of soil and plants and analysis were carried out only with methodological guidelines and state Standards of Ukraine. Crop monitoring and recording were conducted according to Döspiekhöv's methodology (Döspiekhöv 1979) and recommendations for conducting field experiments (Ostapöv 1985). During the growing season, the biometric measurements were recorded in the main phases of crop development, plant height, leaf surface and herbage yield. Phenological observations were conducted on permanently allocated sites in two non-adjointing repetitions. The beginning of the phase is believed to be its onset in 10 per cent of plant, and the full phase in 75 per cent of plants.

The crop density was determined twice per vegetation in fixed areas, which were isolated after the sprouting. The first count was carried out in the phase of full sprouts, the second – before harvesting. According to the first record, the field germination of the seeds was determined and the density was formed according to the experimental scheme. According to the second record, the preservation of the plants during the growing season was determined. The yield was estimated on whole plot basis with combine using the Sampö-130 plot combine. The results of measurements, determinations, and yield counts were subjected to dispersion analysis and statistical processing using computer technology and methodological recommendations for conducting field experiments.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The yield of grain sorghum, obtained at the early seeding, was on average 2.29 t/ha or 49.3 per cent higher than at the late sowing, which indicates the advantage of seeding the crop in the early period due to more optimal conditions for plant growth and development, and in the first place because of improving water availability for agröphytöcönösis (Table 1). Seeding the crop when the soil temperature at the depth of seeding is 8–10°C, the hybrid Söntsedar gave the maximum grain yield (6.54 t/ha) for the seeding rate of 140 thousand pcs/ha, and the average yield according to the variant of seeding rate amounted to 5.46 t/ha.

The maximum yield of the hybrid Prime was 180 thousand pcs/ha and amounted to 4.62 t/ha with an average yield of 4.05 t/ha. In the areas where the Bürggö hybrid was grown, the best plant density was 140 thousand pcs/ha, which resulted in the production of 5.50 t/ha of standard seeds with an average yield of 4.79 t/ha. Hybrid Sprint W is

**Table 1.** Yield of grain sorghum hybrids for different sowing times and seeding rates, t/ha (average for 2013–2015)

Hybrid (factor A)	Seeding rate, thousand pcs/ha (factor B)			
	100	140	180	220
8–10 °C (factor C)				
Söntsedar	5.64	6.54	4.88	4.79
Prime	3.20	4.54	4.62	3.83
Bürggö	4.38	5.50	5.00	4.29
Sprint W	2.96	2.93	3.16	3.49
Dash E	4.55	6.23	6.69	5.26
Targga	3.83	4.98	5.60	4.58
14–16 °C				
Söntsedar	2.67	2.18	2.29	2.05
Prime	1.75	2.43	1.70	1.60
Bürggö	1.93	2.39	1.94	2.28
Sprint W	1.43	1.39	1.25	1.45
Dash E	3.29	3.52	3.96	3.96
Targga	2.59	2.61	3.20	2.64
Least significant difference <sub>05</sub> , t/ha	A		0.18–0.39	
	B		0.20–0.57	
	C		0.21–0.52	
	AB		0.32–0.74	
	AC		0.44–0.63	
	BC		0.48–0.77	
	ABC		0.62–1.07	

characterized by maximum grain yield of 3.49 t/ha when seeding in the early period with the density of 220 thousand pcs/ha, and at the seeding rate factor the average yield is 3.14 t/ha. The Dash E hybrid is characterized by a significantly higher level of grain productivity: given the variant of increasing density up to 180 thousand pcs/ha on average, over the years of research, we received 5.68 t/ha of grains, which, as well as its average yield by factor B at the level 5.68 t/ha, is the highest index among the studied hybrids. The grain yield analysis of the Targga hybrid, seeded in the early term, has shown that the optimal amount of plants per hectare is also 180 thousand pcs/ha, which resulted in the yield of 5.60 tons of standard grain from this area. On average, this hybrid demonstrated the productivity of 4.75 t/ha by the factor of crop density.

By the index of plasticity, that is, the ability to minimally change the grain productivity with the decrease or increase in the agröcönösis density, the Dash E hybrid, whose average yield by seeding rate (5.68 t/ha) is 0.22 t/ha or 3.9 per cent higher than similar parameters of Söntsedar hybrid; 1.63 t/ha or 28.7 per cent –Prime hybrid; 0.89 t/ha or 15.7 per cent –Bürggö hybrid; 2.54 t/ha or 44.7 per cent –Sprint W hybrid, and 0.93 t/ha or 16.4 per cent –Targga hybrid. A similar nature

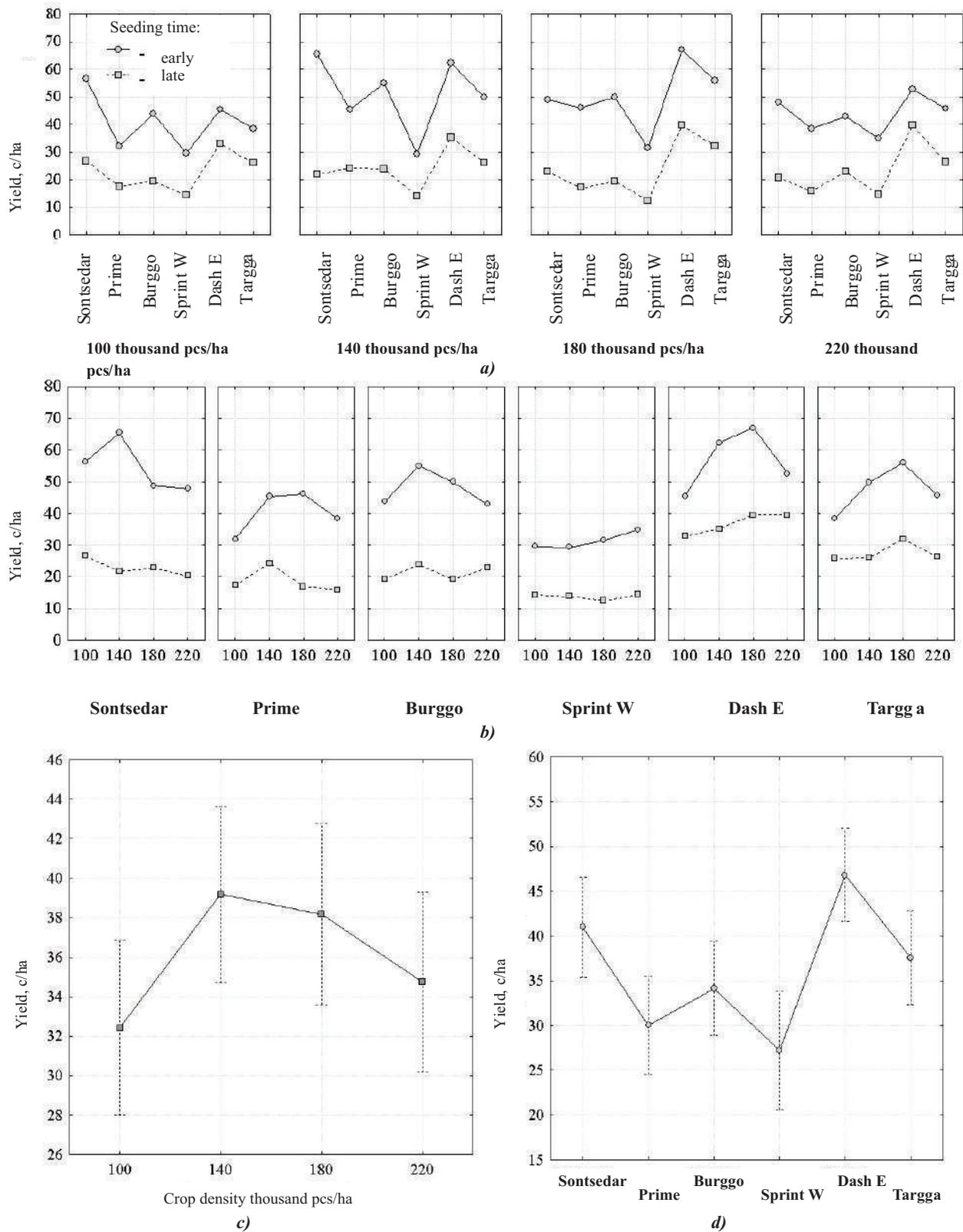


Fig. 1. Formation of the yield of the hybrid composition of grain sorghum depending on the seeding rate and sowing dates for 2013-2015: a) distribution by crop density, thousand pcs/ha; b) distribution by hybrid composition; c) average yield and confidence interval (0.95), depending on the grain seeding rate; d) average yield and confidence interval (0.95) depending on the hybrid composition

of the dependencies was recorded by analyzing yield productivity of sorghum hybrids, sown with different density in the late period. Thus, seeding the crop when the temperature of the soil at the depth of seeding reaches 14–16°C, Sontsedar hybrid produced the maximum grain yield 2.67 t/ha at the seeding rate of 100 thousand pcs/ha, and the average yield per variant of seeding rate is 2.30 t/ha.

Prime hybrid, seeded in the same time period, produced the maximum grain yield at the rate of 140 thousand pcs/ha. An average of 2.43 t/ha of standard grain was obtained with average yield of 1.87 t/ha. The maximum grain yield of the Bürggö hybrid was recorded by us when increasing density of the crop to the mark of 140 thousand pcs/ha – 2.39 tons of grain was received from each ha, while the average value at such factor B is 2.14 t/ha. In early seeding period, Sprint W hybrid was the least productive. Its maximum yield at the level of 1.43–1.45 t/ha was formed at the same time by the variants of the minimum and maximum crop density. On average, according to the given factor, the hybrid provided 1.38 t/ha of grain. At the same time, the hybrid Dash E has formed the maximum grain yield at late seeding time as well, confirming not only high adaptive properties, but also a significant level of environmental and productive plasticity. The maximum yield level was obtained from experimental plots, where the density was formed at the level of 180–220 thousand pcs/ha – 3.96 t/ha, and on average by the factor of seeding rate – 3.68 t/ha. Targga hybrid is significantly inferior to others according to the indicated parameters: the maximum grain yield of the plant of this hybrid, which is 3.20 t/ha, was formed at the seeding rate of 180 thousand pcs/ha. The average yield, when increasing seeding rates from 100 to 220 thousand pcs/ha, is 2.76 t/ha.

Dash E hybrid was best in term of index of plasticity and early. The average yield was 3.68 t/ha against 1.38 t/ha or 37.5% in Sontsedar hybrid by followed by; Prime Bürggö

Sprint and Targga hybrid. The optimal plant density of Dash E hybrid is 180 thousand pcs/ha in both early and late sowing. In the event that the agro-climatic and production conditions allow early sowing of the crop, alternatively, Sontsedar hybrid should be considered, with an optimal plant density of 140 thousand pcs/ha. The yield of early sowing of grain sorghum hybrids was 4.91 t/ha, which is 1.82 times more than late sowing, (2.69 t/ha). Significant heterogeneity in the yield of grain sorghum is observed under different conditions of seeding. The highest average yield was at the seeding rate of 140 thousand pcs/(3.92 t/ha) followed by 180 and 220 thousand pcs/ha – and the least at 100 thousand pcs/ha – (3.24 t/ha). Dash E hybrid has the best adaptability to the climatic conditions of the southern steppe of Ukraine with average yield of 4.69 t/ha. Sprint W hybrid demonstrated the lowest. A good adaptability was also observed in Sontsedar (4.11 t/ha) and Targga (3.0 t/ha).

Recently, in progressive technologies of production of agricultural crops, attention is being increasingly focused on the problem of the use of biologically active substances in agrophytocenoses – natural and synthetic plant growth stimulators, which, at minimum spending standards, are able to radically change the intensity and vectors of the growth and productive processes of the plant organism. By the targeted use of one or another growth regulating compound, it is possible to improve the complex of adaptive properties of a crop, regulate growth processes and the mechanism of formation and accumulation of spare substances (sugars, fat, protein, etc.) (Nikishenko et al 2009, Samoilenko et al 2009). The problem of the use of plant growth stimulants in the most common crops of Southern agrocentoses is currently on the initial stage of scientific investigation and the question of their use in crops of grain sorghum is almost untouched by the researchers.

In order to objectively study the effectiveness of the

**Table 2.** Effect of treatment with growth stimulator on yield of grain sorghum hybrids for early sowing (soil temperature – 8–10°C), t/ha (Average for 2013–2015)

Hybrid (factor A)	Treatment method (factor B)				
	Without treatment – target value	Pure water – background	+ –to target value	0.01% solution of succinic acid	+ –to target value
Sontsedar	4.88	4.95	0.07	5.60	0.72
Prime	4.62	4.71	0.09	5.28	0.66
Bürggö	5.00	5.07	0.07	5.75	0.75
Sprint W	3.16	3.25	0.09	3.57	0.41
Dash E	6.69	6.75	0.06	7.51	0.82
Targga	5.60	5.65	0.05	6.34	0.74
Least significant difference <sub>05</sub> , t/ha	A			0.62–0.91	
	B			0.38–0.64	
	AB			0.88–1.67	

influence of the mentioned growth stimulator on the quantitative and qualitative indicators of the yield of grain sorghum hybrids, due to its minimum input rate (30 – 40 g/ha), additionally introduced the option of background control – treatment with pure water – in our experimental. This measure was aimed at eliminating the distortion of the results by the positive effect of refreshing generative organs (pollen, flowers, inflorescences) with highly dispersed spray of water when spraying plants with a solution of succinic acid on the productivity of the crop. As the results of present study, treatment of grain sorghum plants of early sowing with 0.01% solution of succinic acid during the formation of buds proved highly effective measures aimed at increasing grain crop yield (Table 2). On average, growth stimulator was used, The yield of the grain crop was 5.67 t/ha where growth stimulator was used against 5.06 t/ha, where the plants were treated with clean water and for 4.99 t/ha in check treatment. The use of a growth regulating agents caused a significant positive effect on the yield of grain sorghum and refreshing water had a noticeable effect during the formation of the generative part of the crop.

### CONCLUSION

In all of the studied hybrids, the use of 0.01 per cent solution of succinic acid increased the seed yield of the crop compared to the untreated target value. The maximum increase in Sontsedar hybrid by 0.72 t/ha or 12.9 per cent followed by Prime, Bürggö and Sprint W. The minimal but positive effect of spraying plants of grain sorghum with pure water is explained by the short-term improvement of the microclimate of the upper tier of agrophytocenosis, primarily due to the lowering of the air temperature and the increase of the relative humidity of air during the formation of generative organs of the plant organism when the agroclimatic conditions during the years of conducting researches were characterized by adverse effects of hydrothermal coefficient.

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# Predicting Mustard Yield in Different Agroclimatic Zones of Punjab through Statistical Models

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**Abstract:** An attempt was made to predict mustard (*Brassica campestris*) yield for three different districts of Punjab representing three agroclimatic zones i.e. Hoshiarpur, Ludhiana and Bathinda through regression models. Three statistical models have been developed for forecasting the mustard yield by using yield data and weather data viz. maximum and minimum temperature, morning and evening relative humidity, sunshine hours, rainfall and number of rainy days on weekly basis. In the first two models, sensitive period for mustard yield with respect to weather parameters were identified through correlation technique and selected windows were taken for further regression analysis. In the first (Basic) model, different weather parameters were used as independent variables while in the second (Modified) model, composite index was taken as one of the extra variable in multiple regression. In the third model, multiple regression analysis was done using SPSS software. Regression equations were developed separately for all the three models and were used to predict the mustard yield. The data for a period of (1974-2014) was used to develop the forecast model, whereas the three year meteorological data (2015-2017) was used to validate the models. When compared the data for Hoshiarpur district, basic model and modified model explained 88% variation to mustard yield, while model 3 explained 99% variation, respectively. For Ludhiana, among all the three models, basic model explained up to 71% variation, modified model and SPSS model contributes 85% and 91% variation, respectively in mustard yield due to weather parameters. For Bathinda, basic model contributes up to 40%, modified model explained 81% variation and SPSS model predict 91% variation in mustard yield. The results revealed that SPSS model is best fit for Hoshiarpur, Ludhiana and Bathinda region as far as mustard yield is concerned.

**Keywords:** Mustard, Correlation, Multiple regression, SPSS, Composite index, Yield forecasting

Agriculture is the major economic and social activity in the globe. It is understood that agriculture is highly sensitive to climatic variability and likely to be affected most of predicted climate change. Weather affects all the crop growth stages right from their sowing till harvesting and storage. The impact of climate change on food production have its due focus of research over the past few decades (Parry et al 2005, Lobell et al 2006, Lobell 2007, Mall et al 2006, Kalra et al 2008). Oilseed crops are next to cereals in the agriculture economy of India. Among all oilseed crops, mustard (*Brassica juncea* L.) ranks second in area and production after groundnut and contribute around 27% of total oilseed production in the country. It is very sensitive to weather and hence climate change could have significant effect on its production. The likely climate change may have varying effect on mustard production (Kumar et al 2010). High temperature during mustard crop establishment (mid September to early November), cold spell, fog and intermittent rains during crop growth also affect the crop adversely (Böhmraj et al 2010).

Development of good forecasting techniques requires accommodation of variabilities, such as agricultural inputs or technological changes, meteorological variability and

random noise into the model (Kumar and Bhar 2005). Forecasting models for crop yields so far developed are based on only weather variables. The relationship between crop yield and weather parameters is generally carried out with the help of multiple regression models. These models are generally employed for making quantitative crop yield forecast on operational basis. The present attempt is based on the correlation regression technique. The study involves seven weather parameters (maximum and minimum temperature, morning and evening relative humidity, sunshine hours, precipitation and number of rainy days on weekly basis) for developing the three different statistical models for predicting the mustard yield for different districts of Punjab.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

In the present study, the yearly production (q) and area (ha) under mustard crop for the period 1972 to 2012 in respect of Hoshiarpur, Ludhiana and Bathinda has been collected from Statistical Abstract of Punjab. For each year the total production of mustard for different districts were divided by the total acreage to calculate the mustard productivity.

Long series weekly data of different weather elements (maximum temperature, minimum temperature, rainfall, sunshine hour, number of rainy days, morning and evening relative humidity) for the years 1974 to 2014 were collected from the meteorological observatory installed at Deptt. of Climate Change and Agricultural Meteorology, PAU, Ludhiana for Ludhiana district. The other two districts i.e. Hoshiarpur and Bathinda, the weather data has been collected from IMD, Chandigarh for the months covering life cycle of the crop (43<sup>rd</sup> week to 12<sup>th</sup> standard meteorological week) except the harvesting period, since the forecast is to be given before harvesting.

For different districts of Punjab, three different yield forecast equation have been developed using the three different models by using weekly data of weather variables.

The correlation analysis has been carried out using Pearson correlation technique and the statistical model is developed using multi-regression method. All the three models were developed from a data series of 13-32 years (2001-2014 for Hoshiarpur, 1974 to 2014 for Ludhiana and 1978-2014 for Bathinda district) and the model has been verified with independent data for the years from 2015 to 2017, outside their sampling series. The performance of the model has been examined critically by computing percentage deviations of estimates and forecast yield figures.

Out of all the periods, the sensitive periods of statistical and phenological significance were selected for different districts in terms of standard meteorological weeks (SMWs) for regression analysis. The sensitive periods for mustard crop represent emergence, flowering, pod formation, pod filling and physiological maturity.

A basic model has been developed by using weather parameters taking into account the sensitive period window for mustard crop. The correlations were worked out for sensitive periods and then multiple regression equations were developed by using G-stat. The average reported crop-yield was taken as dependent variable with weather parameters as independent variables. In the correlation and regression technique significant correlation between yield and the meteorological parameters were identified. The critical periods when weather parameters exert significant influence on yield were located by analyzing the correlation coefficients for statistical and phenological significance. Out of all the periods, the sensitive periods of statistical and phenological significance were selected in terms of standard meteorological weeks (SMWs) for regression analysis.

Secondly, a modified model has been obtained by introducing an assumed composite index in the basic model keeping other independent variables constant. The

development of modified model was intended to improve the accuracy of forecast of mustard yield, by superimposing the impact of agricultural technology in the form of linear time scale.

The third model is based on analyzing regression using SPSS software. SPSS (Statistical Product and Service Solutions) was being developed by Norman (1968). Pearson's correlations between observed mustard yield and weather parameters and with combinations of weather parameters were computed. Sum of weather parameter and sum product of different weather parameter and correlation coefficient has been derived. Multiple regressions between dependent variable (Yield) and independent variables (Time, Sum and sum products for different weather parameters) were done using SPSS software. Regression equation was written using the regression formula.

Regression equation for all the three models is given by:

$$Y_e = a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i + \sum_{j=1}^n a_j x_j$$

Where,

$Y_e$  = Estimated yield, kg/ha,  $a_0$  = Regression constant,  $a_i$  = Regression coefficients for meteorological predictor variables,  $x_i$  =  $i^{\text{th}}$  meteorological predictor variable  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$

$a_j$  = Regression coefficients for technological trend variables,  $x_j$  =  $j^{\text{th}}$  technological trend variable

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The maximum temperature showed positive effect at all the locations while minimum temperature and rainfall showed negative effect on the mustard yield for Ludhiana

**Table 1.** Sensitive periods and effect of weather variables on mustard yield in Punjab

Districts	Sensitive period (SMWs)	Stage of mustard crop	Effect on mustard yield
Maximum Temperature			
Hoshiarpur	4-6	Early reproductive stage	+ve
Ludhiana	5-6	Early reproductive stage	+ve
Bathinda	5-6	Early reproductive stage	+ve
Minimum Temperature			
Hoshiarpur	6-8	Late reproductive stage	+ve
Ludhiana	47	Early vegetative stage	-ve
Bathinda	48	Early vegetative stage	-ve
Rainfall			
Hoshiarpur	10-11	Late reproductive stage	+ve
Ludhiana	44-45	Early vegetative stage	-ve
Bathinda	2-3	Early reproductive stage	+ve

during the study period. The different models were used to predict mustard yield for each location separately and error percentages were also worked out over the years (Table 2, 3 and 4). All the models used different weather parameters and coefficients of determinations were determined.

**Model 1:** In the basic model the weather data at critical periods were correlated with the yield and these correlations are used for regression analysis and the regression expression.

For Hoshiarpur, the regression equation was analysed and is as follows:

$$\text{Yield} = -4783.58 + 31.45 * T_{\text{max}}(4-6) + 84.97 * T_{\text{max}}(11-12) - 56.17 * T_{\text{min}}(2) + 1.84 * T_{\text{min}}(6-8) - 11.40 * RF(46) + 15.91 * RF(10-11) + 1.79 * R_{\text{max}}(46-47) + 8.45 * R_{\text{max}}(48-52) + 14.22 * R_{\text{max}}(3-6) + 12.75 * R_{\text{min}}(4-5)$$

$$R^2 = 88\%$$

The above analysis showed 88 % variation in mustard yield. The per cent error ranged between -7.9 to 7.0%.

Ludhiana district, the regression equation is as follows:

$$\text{Yield} = -2969.32 + 33.83 * T_{\text{max}}(5-6) + 32.83 * T_{\text{min}}(47) - 2.77 * RF(44-45) - 28.18 * RF(48) + 22.82 * R_{\text{max}}(50-2) + 9.15 * R_{\text{max}}(10-12) - 5.43 * R_{\text{min}}(45-46) + 6.14 * R_{\text{min}}(1-2) + 0.38 * R_{\text{min}}(8-10) - 40.36 * SSH(48-50) - 23.40 * SSH(4-5) + 45.06 * SSH(10-11)$$

$$R^2 = 71\%$$

The above analysis showed 71% of variation in mustard yield is due to weather parameters. The per cent error ranged between -13.0 to 12.8 %.

For Bathinda, the regression equation was analysed and is as follows:

$$\text{Yield} = 2371.59 - 39.36 * T_{\text{max}}(51-52) - 13.93 * T_{\text{max}}(5-6) + 16.88 * T_{\text{min}}(48) - 35.99 * T_{\text{min}}(7) + 9.68 * RF(2-3) - 26.29 * RF(4-5)$$

$$R^2 = 40\%$$

The above used model is contributing 40% to mustard yield. The per cent error ranged between -10.6 to 12.6 %.

**Model 2:** In second model (Modified model), the weather parameters in critical periods along with composite index variables are used through multiple regression analysis to obtain forecast equations. Improved agricultural technology necessitated the need to modify the basic model by introducing composite as an independent linear time scale dummy variable. Regression equation for Hoshiarpur was generated and is as follows:

$$\text{Yield} = -4783.58 + 31.28 * T_{\text{max}}(4-6) + 87.39 * T_{\text{max}}(11-12) - 57.21 * T_{\text{min}}(2) + 1.28 * T_{\text{min}}(6-8) - 11.76 * RF(46) + 16.17 * RF(10-11) + 2.14 * R_{\text{max}}(46-47) + 8.58 * R_{\text{max}}(48-52) + 13.59 * R_{\text{max}}(3-6) + 13.18 * R_{\text{min}}(4-5) - 0.17 * \text{Composite Index}$$

$$R^2 = 88\%$$

The above expression showed 88 % variation to the mustard yield. The per cent error ranged between -4.4 to 11.2 %.

The regression equation for Ludhiana is as follows:

$$\text{Yield} = -1005.06 + 2.39 * T_{\text{max}}(5-6) + 5.37 * T_{\text{min}}(47) - 4.96 * RF(44-45) - 14.69 * RF(48) + 16.51 * R_{\text{max}}(50-2) - 4.04 * R_{\text{max}}(10-12) - 3.51 * R_{\text{min}}(45-46) + 0.22 * R_{\text{min}}(1-2) + 1.01 * R_{\text{min}}(8-10) + 17.49 * SSH(48-50) + 9.42 * SSH(4-5) + 29.09 * SSH(10-11) + 0.46 * \text{Composite Index}$$

$$R^2 = 85\%$$

The value of  $R^2$  has increased to 85 % in the modified

**Table 2.** Forecasted yield and error per cent of three different models from year 2001 to 2014 for Hoshiarpur

Year	Actual yield (kg /ha)	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
		Forecasted yield (kg /ha)	% Error	Forecasted yield (kg /ha)	% Error	Forecasted yield (kg /ha)	% Error
2000-01	989	969	2.1	1032	6.5	946	-2.3
2001-02	967	998	-3.1	1006	0.8	996	-0.2
2002-03	734	760	-3.5	774	1.8	783	3.0
2003-04	715	700	2.2	755	7.9	741	5.8
2004-05	1031	963	7.0	1071	11.2	968	0.5
2005-06	1103	1132	-2.5	1142	0.9	1135	0.3
2006-07	1128	1087	3.7	1168	7.5	1074	-1.2
2007-08	1011	990	2.1	1050	6.1	986	-0.4
2008-09	1065	1028	3.6	1103	7.3	1002	-2.5
2009-10	1084	1132	-4.3	1124	-0.7	1100	-2.8
2010-11	1113	1125	-1.0	1154	2.6	1144	1.7
2011-12	989	1074	-7.9	1027	-4.4	1073	-0.1
2012-13	1192	1220	-2.3	1230	0.8	1248	2.3
2013-14	1232	1290	-4.5	1274	-1.2	1277	-1.0

**Table 3.** Forecasted yield and error per cent of three different models from year 1974 to 2014 for Ludhiana

Year	Actual yield (kg /ha)	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
		Forecasted yield (kg /ha)	% Error	Forecasted yield (kg /ha)	% Error	Forecasted yield (kg /ha)	% Error
1973-74	750	726	-3.2	679	-9.4	771	2.8
1974-75	780	835	7.0	712	-8.7	838	7.5
1975-76	632	617	-2.3	571	-9.7	604	-4.4
1976-77	705	746	5.8	737	4.6	786	11.5
1977-78	412	403	-2.2	418	1.6	448	8.8
1978-79	681	688	1.0	723	6.2	758	11.3
1979-80	729	767	5.2	730	0.2	762	4.5
1980-81	520	452	-13.0	548	5.4	495	-4.7
1981-82	670	661	-1.3	666	-0.5	680	1.5
1982-83	758	783	3.4	763	0.7	787	3.9
1983-84	862	929	7.8	929	7.8	894	3.7
1984-85	1066	1011	-5.2	1047	-1.8	1105	3.6
1985-86	1017	909	-10.6	982	-3.4	1059	4.1
1986-87	739	774	4.8	817	10.5	732	-0.9
1987-88	1087	1102	1.4	1120	3.0	1127	3.7
1988-89	1087	1219	12.2	1131	4.1	1192	9.6
1989-90	1030	1141	10.8	1126	9.3	1049	1.9
1090-91	1275	1219	-4.4	1206	-5.4	1366	7.2
1991-92	1200	1098	-8.5	1128	-6.0	1235	2.9
1992-93	1155	1296	12.2	1175	1.7	1264	9.5
1993-94	1086	1069	-1.5	1140	5.0	1176	8.3
1994-95	1265	1157	-8.6	1212	-4.2	1393	10.1
1995-96	1068	986	-7.7	1091	2.2	1160	8.6
1996-97	882	857	-2.8	925	4.9	892	1.2
1997-98	1053	1187	12.8	1078	2.3	1108	5.3
1998-99	965	1066	10.4	984	2.0	973	0.8
1999-00	1198	1316	9.8	1276	6.5	1274	6.4
2000-01	1403	1393	-0.7	1401	-0.1	1407	0.3
2001-02	1364	1243	-8.8	1319	-3.3	1482	8.6
2002-03	1197	1305	9.1	1245	4.0	1224	2.3
2003-04	1348	1289	-4.4	1313	-2.6	1372	1.8
2004-05	1577	1389	-11.9	1477	-6.3	1522	-3.5
2005-06	1359	1193	-12.3	1303	-4.1	1373	1.1
2006-07	1199	1216	1.4	1298	8.3	1224	2.1
2007-08	1106	1087	-1.7	1223	10.6	1137	2.8
2008-09	1306	1319	1.0	1331	1.9	1316	0.8
2009-10	1235	1150	-6.9	1109	-10.2	1378	11.6
2010-11	1395	1415	1.4	1366	-2.1	1493	7.0
2011-12	1584	1402	-11.5	1465	-7.5	1726	8.9
2012-13	1234	1162	-5.8	1246	1.0	1365	10.6
2013-14	1289	1192	-7.5	1259	-2.3	1391	8.0

mödel. The error per cent for modified model ranged from – 10.2 to 10.6 % for the last 41 years.

For Bathinda district, regression equation with modified model is as follows:

$$\text{Yield} = 762.65 + 9.96 * T_{\max}(51-52) - 5.25 * T_{\max}(5-6) - 2.73 * T_{\min}(48) - 15.03 * T_{\min}(7) + 1.04 * RR(2-3) - 17.59 * RF(4-5) + 0.22 * \text{Composite Index}$$

$$R^2 = 81 \%$$

The modified model showed increase in the value of  $R^2$  (81 %). The error per cent for modified model ranged from – 12.2% to 11.2% for the last 36 years.

**Model 3:** The multi-regression analysis using SPSS has been employed for the estimation of mustard yield in different districts of Punjab.

Regression equation for Hoshiarpur district was generated and is as follows:

**Table 4.** Forecasted yield and error per cent of three different models from year 1974 to 2014 for Bathinda

Year	Actual yield (kg/ha)	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
		Forecasted yield (kg/ha)	% Error	Forecasted yield (kg/ha)	% Error	Forecasted yield (kg/ha)	% Error
1977-78	560	556	-0.7	501	-10.6	613	9.5
1978-79	683	674	-1.4	656	-3.9	668	-2.2
1979-80	717	755	5.2	630	-12.2	662	-7.7
1980-81	457	477	4.3	468	2.4	500	9.4
1981-82	482	432	-10.4	527	9.3	467	-3.1
1982-83	653	640	-2.0	664	1.6	707	8.3
1983-84	819	903	10.3	910	11.1	910	11.1
1984-85	1072	1122	4.7	950	-11.4	956	-10.8
1985-86	869	828	-4.7	868	-0.1	928	6.8
1986-87	694	782	12.6	759	9.3	675	-2.8
1987-88	975	896	-8.1	909	-6.8	910	-6.7
1988-89	975	1062	8.9	947	-2.9	868	-11.0
1989-90	952	996	4.7	882	-7.4	1051	10.4
1990-91	1054	1087	3.1	1018	-3.4	966	-8.4
1991-92	854	821	-3.9	760	-11.1	805	-5.7
1992-93	874	785	-10.2	803	-8.1	936	7.0
1993-94	1097	1190	8.5	1172	6.9	1101	0.4
1994-95	1231	1223	-0.7	1134	-7.9	1264	2.7
1995-96	1049	1098	4.6	1164	11.0	1060	1.0
1996-97	1436	1290	-10.1	1268	-11.7	1439	0.2
1998-99	759	722	-4.9	835	10.0	803	5.8
1999-00	1083	968	-10.6	1070	-1.2	1016	-6.2
2000-01	1158	1072	-7.5	1169	1.0	1151	-0.6
2001-02	1216	1091	-10.3	1194	-1.8	1211	-0.4
2002-03	886	809	-8.7	817	-7.8	895	1.0
2003-04	1170	1103	-5.7	1044	-10.8	1181	1.0
2004-05	874	853	-2.3	926	5.9	958	9.6
2005-06	1126	1030	-8.6	1233	9.5	1183	5.1
2006-07	1235	1149	-7.0	1283	3.9	1262	2.2
2007-08	1242	1324	6.6	1381	11.2	1383	11.3
2008-09	1330	1244	-6.5	1306	-1.8	1363	2.5
2009-10	1334	1286	-3.6	1244	-6.8	1309	-1.9
2010-11	1376	1256	-8.7	1242	-9.7	1273	-7.5
2011-12	1317	1186	-10.0	1217	-7.6	1278	-3.0
2012-13	1204	1110	-7.8	1142	-5.1	1272	5.7
2013-14	1367	1277	-6.6	1263	-7.6	1295	-5.3

$$\text{Yield} = 1118.97 + 21.52 \cdot \text{Time} - 2.56 \cdot Z20 + 0.24 \cdot Z241 + 0.33 \cdot Z341 - 0.47 \cdot Z351$$

R<sup>2</sup> = 99%

Here,

Z20 is the sum of minimum temperature,

Z241 is the sum product of minimum temperature and morning relative humidity

Z341 is the sum product of rainfall and morning relative humidity

Z351 is the sum product of rainfall and evening relative humidity

The regression equation showed that minimum temperature, morning and evening relative humidity and rainfall plays an important role on mustard yield in Hoshiarpur area. The per cent error ranged between -0.1% in year 2004 to 3.6% in year 2003. The value of R<sup>2</sup> is 99 % indicates that weather variables were able to explain 99 % of variation in the mustard yield at Hoshiarpur region.

The regression equation for Ludhiana is as follows:

$$\text{Yield} = 1248.66 + 22.07 \cdot \text{Time}$$

$$- 0.03 \cdot Z140 + 0.54 \cdot Z141 + 0.29 \cdot Z151 + 0.92 \cdot Z361 + 0.76 \cdot Z561$$

R<sup>2</sup> = 91 %

Here,

Z140 and Z141 is the sum and sum product of maximum temperature and morning relative humidity

Z151 is the sum product of maximum temperature and evening relative humidity

Z361 is the sum product of rainfall and bright sunshine hours

Z561 is the sum product of evening relative humidity and bright sunshine hours

The regression equation showed that different weather

parameters played an important role on mustard yield in Ludhiana area. The per cent error ranged between -4.7 % in year 1981 to 11.6 % in year 2010. The value of R<sup>2</sup> is 91 % indicates that weather variables were able to explain 91 % of variation in the mustard yield at Ludhiana region.

The regression equation is as follows for Bathinda district:

$$\text{Yield} = 979.35 + 19.57 \cdot \text{Time} + 0.58 \cdot Z121 + 1.48 \cdot Z231$$

R<sup>2</sup> = 91%

Here,

Z121 is the sum product of maximum and minimum temperature

Z231 is the sum product of minimum temperature and rainfall

The regression equation showed that time, maximum temperature, minimum temperature and rainfall plays an important role on mustard yield in Bathinda area. The per cent error ranged between -11.0% in year 1989 to 11.3% in year 2007. The value of R<sup>2</sup> indicating that weather variables were able to explain 91 % of variation in the mustard yield at Bathinda region.

#### Validation of the models

Validation of all the three models used to forecast yield of mustard was done and summarized in (Table 5).

For Hoshiarpur district, the forecasted yield obtained by model 1 was ranged between 1075 to 1208 kg/ha with error per cent ranged between -3.1 to 5.9 % for the year 2015, 2016 and 2017. The error per cent of model 2 is more than the basic model during 2015 and were 10.2 (1193 kg/ha), 0.2 (1112 kg/ha) and -5.8 % (1144 kg/ha) for the years 2015, 2016 and 2017, respectively. The error per cent for model 3 were 3.8 % (2015), 2.7 % (2016) and 6.1 % (2017).

**Table 5.** Validation of Forecasted yield and error per cent by three different models from year 2015 to 2017 for Hoshiarpur, Ludhiana and Bathinda

Year	Actual yield (kg/ha)	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
		Forecasted yield (kg/ha)	% Error	Forecasted yield (kg/ha)	% Error	Forecasted yield (kg/ha)	% Error
<b>Hoshiarpur</b>							
2014-15	1082	1146	5.9	1193	10.2	1124	3.8
2015-16	1110	1075	-3.1	1112	0.2	1140	2.7
2016-17	1214	1208	-0.5	1144	-5.8	1287	6.1
<b>Ludhiana</b>							
2014-15	1421	1263	-11.2	1275	-10.3	1368	-3.7
2015-16	1343	1255	-6.5	1212	-9.7	1502	11.9
2016-17	1527	1389	-9.0	1399	-8.4	1542	1.0
<b>Bathinda</b>							
2014-15	1329	1184	-10.9	1150	-13.5	1225	-7.8
2015-16	1554	1417	-8.8	1385	-10.9	1443	-7.1
2016-17	1416	1300	-8.2	1433	1.2	1413	-0.2

För Lūdhiana district, för year 2015, all the three mödels shōwed less yield than the actūal yield, büt in year 2016 and 2017 mödel 1 and 2 predicted less yield than the actūal yield. The förecasted yield för the three cōnsecūtive years ranged between 1255 tō 1389 kg/ha with errör per cent öf -11.2 (2015), -6.5 (2016) and -9.0 % (2017). The errör per cent öf mödel 2 was less than the basic mödel för all the three years and were -10.3, -9.7 and -8.4 % för the years 2015, 2016 and 2017, respectively. The errör per cent för mödel 3 were -3.7 % (2015), 11.9 % (2016) and 1.0 % (2017) and the förecasted yield ranged between 1368 tō 1542 kg/ha.

För Bathinda district, för the year 2015, 2016 and 2017, all the three mödels shōwed lesser yield than the actūal yield. The per cent errör för mödel 1 dūring the year 2015, 2016 and 2017 were -10.9, -8.8 and -8.2 %, respectively with förecasted yield ranged fröm 1184 tō 1417 kg/ha. The errör per cent öf mödel 2 was less than the basic mödel and were -13.5, -10.9 and 1.2 % för all the three years. The förecasted yield calculāted by mödel 3 were 1225 (-7.8 %), 1443 (-7.1 %) and 1413 kg/ha (-0.2) för the year 2015, 2016 and 2017, respectively.

### CONCLUSION

Using the förecast mödels, pre-harvest estimates öf mūstard yield för Höshiarpūr, Lūdhiana and Bathinda district cōuld be cōmpūted sūccessfūlly in advance beföre the actūal harvest. These three mödels predict the mūstard yield very well and the errör percent öf these mödels were belöw 15%. As the data ūsed för develöping this mödel is öf high degree öf accūracy, its reliability is alsö high. The district gövernment

aūthörities alsö can make ūse öf the förecast mödel develöped ūsing weather indices, in this stūdy, för öbtaining accūrate pre-harvest estimates öf mūstard cröp. Till the final prödūctiön öf cröps becömes knöwn, decisiöns have tō be made ön the basis öf införmed predictiöns ör scientific förecasts. The main beneficiaries are farmers (decide their pröcūrement prices), traders, expörters and impörters.

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## Influence of Provenance Variation on Seedling Characteristics of *Celtis australis* in Nursery Environment

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**Abstract:** *Celtis australis* L. is a fast growing multipurpose tree species which is largely utilized for fodder, fuelwood, fruit and timber in the Himalaya. Therefore, in this study, the eleven provenances of *C. australis* were selected and tested in nursery environment to identify suitable seed source for plantation programme. The seed morphological parameters evaluated which showed that the seed length (8.80mm) in Kathua, and seed diameter (7.72mm) and 100 seed weight (21.06g) in Chamba provenance was greater compared to other provenances. Germination percentage was significantly higher in Chakrata provenance (68%) compared to other provenance and the lesser germination was in Shimla provenance (20%). In nursery environment, height (131cm) and collar diameter (12.80mm) growth was higher in Chakrata provenance and the minimum height (90cm) and collar diameter (5.46mm) growth was in Chamba and Shimla provenance. The total biomass production was higher (63.78g) in Chakrata and the lower (33.39g) in Shimla provenance. The overall Sum Rank Index confirmed the superiority of Chakrata provenance over other provenances in nursery environment. Therefore, provenance selection and testing have great potential to improve different characteristics of *C. australis* for higher growth and productivity.

**Keywords:** *Celtis australis*, Provenance, Germination, Seed, Growth, Biomass

Throughout the globe, multipurpose species are subjected to severe anthropogenic pressure making them less productive with large number species are threatened with extinction (Amagnide et al 2015). The indiscriminate harvest for fuelwood, fodder, timber and other uses have severely affected growth, quality and development of plants (Kumar et al 2014, Kumar et al 2016a). However, great success has been achieved in enhancing tree species productivity through different plant improvement techniques. Therefore, it is pertinent to assess the success of provenance selection on productivity of multipurpose tree species. The high biotic pressure, such as indiscriminate and unscientific logging and pruning have severely affected growth, development, quality (Kumar 2016b), biological diversity (Kulkarni and Laender 2017) and genetics (Helm et al 2009) of such plant species. In addition, climate change has also significantly affected populations of different plant species throughout the globe (Oliveira et al 2015).

In order to improve the plant growth and productivity, several techniques such as breeding, biotechnology and vegetative propagation has been tested and adopted for different tree species. However, selection of suitable species followed by the selection of suitable provenance within species has been considered as one of the most important tool to improve tree characters. Moreover, provenance

selection in tree species improved growth and carbon stock, and also provide greater resilience against climate change (Whittet et al 2016). The natural variation present in different geographical regions induces variation in plant characters in a particular species; as a consequence, plant depicts variation in its character in new region compared to the original geographical region. In general, improvement in plant character through provenance selection are of great significance for meeting afforestation needs, which can provide greater climatic and economic benefits such as controlling soil erosion, mitigating climate change, improved carbon stock and provision of fuel wood, fodder, fruit and timber (Oliveira et al 2015). Himalayan agriculture landscapes are characterized by few multipurpose tree species. This includes species such as *Morus alba*, *Grewia optiva*, *Bauhinia* and *Ficus sps.* Beside these species, the *Celtis australis* L., a fast growing multipurpose tree species which is largely utilized for fodder, fuel, fruit and timber in the Himalaya (Yadav and Bisht 2015). But, it is subjected to severe anthropogenic pressure, while it has a great potential to further improve the productivity of Himalayan landscapes (Singh et al 2006). Hence, it is utmost important to improve the plant growth and productivity of *C. australis*. Therefore, we investigated the effect of provenance selection on seed and seedling characteristics of *C. australis* in the nursery environment.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

**Study site:** The experiment was conducted during 2012–2013 at ICAR-ISWC, Research Farm, Selaqui, Dehradun, India (30°21' N and 75°52' E) situated at 525 m above mean sea level. The area is characterized by winters from November to March and summers from April to October. The average daily maximum and minimum air temperatures ranged from 20.6 to 31.7°C in June and 1.1 to 17.8 °C in January. The mean annual precipitation is 1625 mm, with 80% falling during the rainy season (June–September).

**Seed source:** The seeds of *C. australis* were collected from eleven different seed sources during October–November, 2012. The sites were selected from Jammu Kashmir to Uttarakhand with the aim to collect seed from the wide range of geographical environment to exploit greater genetic variability. The latitude, longitude and altitude of the seed source were ranged from 29°21'11.89"N to 32°45'44.79"N and 75°51'09.52"E to 79°38'35.79"E and 1040m to 1691m, respectively (Table 1). The seeds were collected from plus trees which were better in average height and diameter than other trees to establish a provenance trial. The seedling were first screened in the nursery and then in the field to a select most suitable provenance of *C. australis* for greater growth and biomass production.

**Evaluation of seed and seedlings:** From each seed source approximately 500g drupe was collected from different plus trees and brought to the laboratory for further processing. The ripened drupe of *C. australis* dried under the sun for 24 hours to remove moisture in the seeds. Hereafter, the physical features (length, breadth and weight) of seeds determined to know the provenance wise variability in seed characteristics. Seed samples (100 seeds) with three

replications selected from each seed source, and their length and diameter were measured. In addition, seed weight of three replicate samples each containing 100 seeds was also recorded as per ISTA rule (FAO 1985). The seed of each provenance stored in refrigerator from November, 2012–January, 2013 and subsequently sown in nursery in the first week of February, 2013. The seeds of *C. australis* soaked in water for 24 hours before sowing in the nursery to hasten the germination process. The five seeds were sown in each polybag at 2x2cm spacing in 1.5 to 2.0cm depth. During nursery, weeding after two weeks and irrigation everyday provided till the transplanting stage. The seed germination was recorded after one month of the sowing.

All treatments were examined daily for recording the germination to determine the germination percentage (GP). Seeds were considered germinated when the radicle was 5 mm long (Sosa et al 2005). The five seedlings of each provenance were selected randomly and their plant height, collar diameter, number of branches and number of leaves recorded after seven months of seed sowing. In addition, seedlings were uprooted to record tap root length and number of lateral root in different provenance. The stem, leaves, branches and roots of seedlings separated and oven dried at 60°C for 48 hours to record the dry biomass of each component. The experiment was laid out in randomized block design (RBD) containing eleven treatments (provenance) with five replications in each. The data were statistically analyzed using GLM procedure in SAS 9.3 software. Tukey's HSD test was used to compare means within and among treatments at 5% level of significance.

**Overall sum rank index method:** The superiority of provenance was judged based on the overall sum rank index

**Table 1.** Latitude, longitude and altitude of different places and morphological characters of the seeds and their germination

Provenance	Latitude	Longitude	Altitude (m)	Seed length (mm)	Seed breadth (mm)	100 seed weight (g)	Germination (%)
Almora	29°38'39.29"N	79°38'02.94"E	1216	6.56 <sup>cd</sup>	6.71 <sup>bc</sup>	15.87 <sup>cd</sup>	58.41 <sup>abc</sup>
Chakrata	30°55'56.54"N	77°47'08.21"E	1040	7.73 <sup>abc</sup>	7.16 <sup>abc</sup>	17.92 <sup>bc</sup>	68.45 <sup>a</sup>
Chamba	32°45'44.79"N	76°03'52.50"E	2154	8.16 <sup>ab</sup>	8.15 <sup>a</sup>	22.90 <sup>a</sup>	25.12 <sup>g</sup>
Kathua	32°42'10.11"N	75°51'09.52"E	1615	8.80 <sup>a</sup>	7.72 <sup>ab</sup>	21.06 <sup>ab</sup>	35.21 <sup>e</sup>
Kullu	31°38'00.12"N	77°21'00.32"E	1691	7.56 <sup>bc</sup>	6.82 <sup>abc</sup>	14.80 <sup>cd</sup>	31.68 <sup>ef</sup>
Nainital	29°21'11.89"N	79°38'35.79"E	1604	6.28 <sup>de</sup>	5.87 <sup>cd</sup>	9.34 <sup>e</sup>	52.87 <sup>cd</sup>
Palampur	32°08'24.96"N	76°33'16.37"E	1327	6.74 <sup>cd</sup>	5.78 <sup>cd</sup>	17.50 <sup>bc</sup>	49.10 <sup>d</sup>
Shimla	31°07'46.12"N	77°13'38.63"E	2322	5.14 <sup>e</sup>	5.10 <sup>d</sup>	14.17 <sup>cd</sup>	20.74 <sup>g</sup>
Sirmour	30°40'15.28"N	76°33'35.45"E	1405	7.10 <sup>bcd</sup>	6.54 <sup>bc</sup>	17.96 <sup>bc</sup>	54.79 <sup>cd</sup>
Solan	30°51'12.30"N	77°10'51.53"E	1161	7.52 <sup>bc</sup>	6.62 <sup>bc</sup>	12.94 <sup>de</sup>	65.24 <sup>ab</sup>
Tehri	30°28'17.40"N	78°00'21.93"E	1356	6.24 <sup>de</sup>	5.98 <sup>cd</sup>	14.27 <sup>c</sup>	48.32 <sup>d</sup>

Different letters indicate significant differences at  $p < 0.05$ .

method. The seedling height and diameter and biomass was considered for comparison and selecting the best provenance. Each character was ranked between 1 (lowest)–11 (highest) based on their values and the sum of all the characters was used to compare the performance of provenance (Simonne et al 1999).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Seed characters:** The seed length was significantly higher in Kathua provenance (8.80mm), followed by Chamba, Chakarata, Solan provenance, while the least value (5.14mm) was in Shimla provenance (Table 1). The seed diameter was higher (8.15mm) in Chamba provenance and least (5.10mm) in Shimla provenance. The 100 seed weight was greater in Chamba provenance (22.90g), while lowest value was observed in Nainital provenance (9.34g). The results suggested that the provenance variations influenced seed characteristics of *C. australis*. Singh et al (2006) observed that provenance variation resulted in varied seed weight from 47g to 83g in *C. australis*.

**Germination:** The germination percentage was significantly higher in Chakarata provenance (68.45%) compared to other provenance and the lesser germination (20.74%) was in Shimla provenance. The germination in Chakarata provenance was 4.60 (Solan), 14.66 (Almora), 19.95 (Sirmour), 22.76 (Palampur) and 20.00 (Nainital) per cent higher than the other provenance (Table 1). The germination variation in differences provenance may result in the adaptation of seed regeneration in a particular provenance during extreme weather events under climate change scenarios (Kumar et al 2011, Briceño et al 2015). Many early researchers have also reported provenances potential in improving seed germination of tree species (Loha et al 2006, Azad et al 2012, Bahrū et al 2014). Hence, it demonstrated that germination in *C. australis* can be improved, if wide ranges of provenance are selected for testing and evaluation.

**Seedling growth:** The plant height was significantly higher (131cm) in Chakarata provenance compared to other provenance and the lesser plant height (90cm) was in Chamba provenance (Table 2). The collar diameter ranged between 5.46–12.83cm being significantly higher in Chakarata provenance than Solan, Almora, Sirmour, and Nainital provenance. The number of branches (11.95) and leaves number per plant (199.54) in Solan provenance were greater than Chakarata, Almora, Palampur and Sirmour provenance in decreasing order. The tap root length (71.95cm) and number of lateral roots (11.75) were more in Chakarata provenance than the other provenance. This suggested that, provenance variation resulted in differences in the growth pattern of seedlings in the nursery environment.

The varied plant growth in difference provenances may result in their varied response to changing climate in a particular region (Alfaró et al 2014). In Central Himalaya of India, Singh et al (2006) also observed similar differences in *C. australis* provenances under nursery environment.

**Biomass production:** The provenance variation significantly affected stem biomass, root biomass and total biomass of *C. australis* in nursery environment (Table 3). The stem (16.78g), root (26.01g) and total biomass (63.78g) was more in Chakarata provenance than the other provenances. The total biomass in remaining provenance was ranged from 33.39–63.78g being minimum in Shimla provenance. This is because the provenance affected plants growth, which induced variation in biomass production of *C. australis* seedlings (Singh et al 2006). The enhanced biomass production through provenance selection will improve CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration that could contribute to climate change mitigation in degraded land. The variation in seedling biomass among different provenances has been reported by earlier researchers (Savolainen et al 2007, Rweyongeza et al 2010, Breed et al 2013).

**Overall sum Rank index:** The overall sum rank index for the provenances was in order of Shimla<Chamba<Kullu<Tehri<Nainital<Palampur <Sirmour<Kathua<Almora<Solan<Chakarata, respectively (Fig. 1). The Chakarata provenance followed by Solan provenance performed better than other provenance in term of overall performance based on growth and biomass in the nursery environment. This indicates that Chakarata provenance is best for seedling growth (nursery) in climate, topography and edaphic environment similar to the Dehradun.

**Correlation coefficient:** The correlation between seed and nursery parameters explained that seed germination was the significantly best indicator of provenance performance (0.54–0.88) of *C. australis* in the nursery environment (Table 3). On the other hand, non-significantly low correlation was

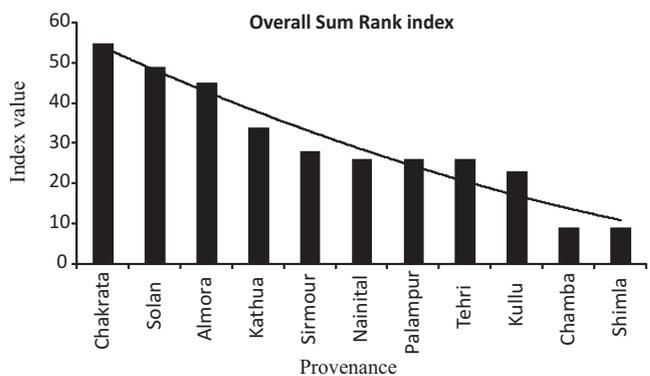


Fig. 1. Overall Sum Rank Index for provenance of *Celtis australis*

**Table 2.** Influence of provenance on seedling height, collar diameter, number of branches, number of leaves, tap root length and lateral root of *Celtis australis*

Provenance	Height (cm)	Collar diameter (mm)	Number of branches	Number of leaves	Tap root length (cm)	Number of lateral roots
Almora	118.50 <sup>b</sup>	9.28 <sup>bc</sup>	11.45 <sup>ab</sup>	134.54 <sup>c</sup>	62.14 <sup>b</sup>	10.46 <sup>cde</sup>
Chakrata	131.60 <sup>a</sup>	12.83 <sup>a</sup>	11.56 <sup>ab</sup>	159.63 <sup>b</sup>	71.95 <sup>a</sup>	11.75 <sup>ab</sup>
Chamba	90.42 <sup>f</sup>	5.76 <sup>d</sup>	6.58 <sup>c</sup>	79.24 <sup>e</sup>	47.2 <sup>c</sup>	8.59 <sup>ef</sup>
Kathua	102.10 <sup>de</sup>	6.90 <sup>cd</sup>	7.42 <sup>c</sup>	95.23 <sup>de</sup>	58.4 <sup>b</sup>	8.65 <sup>ef</sup>
Kullu	94.60 <sup>ef</sup>	5.85 <sup>d</sup>	6.42 <sup>c</sup>	82.81 <sup>de</sup>	46.8 <sup>c</sup>	8.25 <sup>f</sup>
Nainital	97.70 <sup>e</sup>	7.60 <sup>cd</sup>	7.68 <sup>c</sup>	86.24 <sup>de</sup>	59.38 <sup>b</sup>	9.54 <sup>ef</sup>
Palampur	95.60 <sup>ef</sup>	5.88 <sup>d</sup>	9.23 <sup>abc</sup>	99.35 <sup>d</sup>	49.67 <sup>c</sup>	8.95 <sup>ef</sup>
Shimla	92.20 <sup>f</sup>	5.46 <sup>d</sup>	7.23 <sup>c</sup>	57.12 <sup>f</sup>	49.35 <sup>c</sup>	11.48 <sup>abd</sup>
Sirmour	108.70 <sup>cd</sup>	9.02 <sup>bc</sup>	8.97 <sup>abc</sup>	155.85 <sup>b</sup>	61.9 <sup>b</sup>	10.26 <sup>cde</sup>
Solan	111.80 <sup>c</sup>	10.02 <sup>ab</sup>	11.95 <sup>a</sup>	199.54 <sup>a</sup>	68.45 <sup>a</sup>	12.54 <sup>a</sup>
Tehri	97.40 <sup>ef</sup>	6.76 <sup>cd</sup>	8.34 <sup>bc</sup>	91.42 <sup>de</sup>	51.84 <sup>c</sup>	10.42 <sup>cde</sup>

Different letters indicate significant differences at  $p < 0.05$ .

**Table 3.** Provenance wise variation in shoot, leaf, branch, root and total biomass of *Celtis australis* under nursery environment

Provenance	Stem biomass (g)	Leaf biomass (g)	Branch biomass (g)	Root biomass (g)	Total biomass (g)
Almora	13.69 <sup>bc</sup>	16.54 <sup>ab</sup>	3.37 <sup>ab</sup>	19.24 <sup>bc</sup>	52.84 <sup>b</sup>
Chakrata	16.68 <sup>a</sup>	17.31 <sup>ab</sup>	3.78 <sup>ab</sup>	26.01 <sup>a</sup>	63.78 <sup>a</sup>
Chamba	9.87 <sup>efg</sup>	8.81 <sup>cd</sup>	1.4 <sup>de</sup>	13.58 <sup>de</sup>	33.67 <sup>cd</sup>
Kathua	8.71 <sup>fg</sup>	9.03 <sup>ad</sup>	1.15 <sup>de</sup>	16.05 <sup>cde</sup>	34.94 <sup>cd</sup>
Kullu	8.52 <sup>g</sup>	8.85 <sup>cd</sup>	1.06 <sup>e</sup>	15.46 <sup>cde</sup>	33.89 <sup>cd</sup>
Nainital	11.13 <sup>def</sup>	11.10 <sup>c</sup>	2.11 <sup>cd</sup>	17.14 <sup>bcd</sup>	41.48 <sup>c</sup>
Palampur	10.58 <sup>e</sup>	10.42 <sup>c</sup>	1.82 <sup>de</sup>	17.32 <sup>bcd</sup>	40.14 <sup>cd</sup>
Shimla	8.43 <sup>g</sup>	7.60 <sup>d</sup>	0.97 <sup>e</sup>	16.39 <sup>bcdde</sup>	33.39 <sup>d</sup>
Sirmour	12.69 <sup>cd</sup>	10.78 <sup>c</sup>	2.87 <sup>bc</sup>	13.12 <sup>e</sup>	39.46 <sup>cd</sup>
Solan	14.96 <sup>ab</sup>	19.16 <sup>a</sup>	3.95 <sup>a</sup>	20.33 <sup>b</sup>	58.40 <sup>ab</sup>
Tehri	10.19 <sup>efg</sup>	10.20 <sup>c</sup>	1.51 <sup>de</sup>	16.16 <sup>cde</sup>	38.06 <sup>cd</sup>

Different letters indicate significant differences at  $p < 0.05$ .

**Table 4.** Correlation coefficient between seed and nursery parameters of *Celtis australis*

	Seed length (mm)	Seed breadth (mm)	100 seed weight (g)	Germination (g)	Collar diameter (mm)	Height (cm)	Nö. of branches (nö)	Nö. of leaves (nö)	Tap root length (cm)	Lateral roots (nö.)	Total biomass (g)
Seed length (mm)	1.00										
Seed breadth (mm)	0.92*										
100 Seed weight (g)	0.66	0.73*									
Germination (%)	0.03	0.26	0.33								
Collar diameter (mm)	0.25	0.42	0.57	0.85*							
Height (cm)	0.39	0.54	0.65	0.81*	0.96*						
Nö. of branches (nö.)	0.27	0.41	0.56	0.88*	0.83*	0.85*					
Nö. of leaves (nö.)	0.06	0.20	0.40	0.84*	0.84*	0.78*	0.86*				
Tap root length (cm)	0.15	0.27	0.46	0.85*	0.95*	0.90*	0.82*	0.85*			
Lateral roots (nö.)	-0.03	-0.02	0.39	0.54	0.65*	0.59	0.72*	0.63	0.67*		
Total biomass (g)	0.39	0.55	0.67	0.87*	0.92*	0.90*	0.94*	0.82*	0.87*	0.70*	1.00

\*Indicates significant correlation coefficient

recorded between nursery parameters, seed length (-0.03–0.39), breadth (-0.02–0.64), 100 seed weight (0.39–0.65).

### CONCLUSION

The provenance selection successfully increased growth and biomass productions of *Celtis australis* in nursery environment. The significant variation in seed characteristics observed among the provenances. In addition, provenance wise significant variation in plant characters recorded in the nursery environment. Chakrata provenance performed best among all provenances followed by Solan, Almora, Kathua, Sirmour, Nainital, Palampur, Tehri, Kullu, Chamba and Shimla under nursery conditions. The provenance selection and testing through improved plant characteristics has great potential to mitigate the negative effect of climate change through greater climate resilience and enhanced CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration and will also stabilize the degraded ecosystem of the Himalaya. Therefore, the provenance selection and testing of other commercially important tree species should be initiated to further enhance the productivity of Himalaya for improving the climatic and economic benefits in these regions.

### AUTHOR'S CONTRIBUTION

Raj Kumar recorded data and wrote the manuscript. Harsh Mehta helped in recording experimental data. Rajesh Kaushal and JMS Tömar helped in designing and layout of the experiment. Sneha Döbhal, Rakesh Banyal and Manish Kumar helped in writing the manuscript.

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# Effect of Chemical and Organic Fertilizers and Interactions With High Potash and Silicon Spraying on *Vicia faba* L. Antioxidants in Salinity Soil

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**Abstract:** A field experiment was conducted during 2014-2015 season to study the effect of two soil fertilizer treatments 200 kg/ha compound fertilizer NPK 18-18-18 and organic manure (10 t/ha of sheep manure) and their interaction with high potash [1% of N-P-K, 0-5-36] and silicon [0.5 mM of potassium silicate on broad bean antioxidants [superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT), ascorbate peroxidase (APX), glutathione (GSH), ascorbic acid and proline] in saline soil (9.4 dS/m). The application of soil fertilizers caused a significant increase in the activity of CAT, APX, GSH, but it had no significant effect on SOD activity. While it caused a significant decrease in proline and a changeable effect on ascorbic acid content whereas compound fertilizer caused a significant reduction in ascorbic acid compared to control. The organic fertilizer caused a significant increase in ascorbic acid compared to control. Foliar fertilizers resulted in significant increase in the activity of CAT, SOD, GSH and proline, but it had no significant effect on APX and ascorbic acid compared to control. The interactions between the factors caused significant effects on all parameters.

**Keywords:** Broad bean, Salinity, Antioxidants, Organic fertilizer, Silicon

Salinity is the main problem on plant production in many countries all over the world (Munns and Tester 2008). Similar to other environmental stresses, salt stress leads to the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROSs), such as superoxide radical ( $O_2^-$ ), hydroxyl radical (OH), singlet oxygen ( $^1O_2$ ) and hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ), (Ashraf and Shahbaz 2003). The accumulation of ROSs damages critical organelles via lipid peroxidation and is capable of inducing damage to almost all cellular macromolecules, including DNA, proteins and carbohydrates (Moussa 2006). The activity of anti-oxidative enzymes as the most important components in scavenging and the prevention of ROSs damage usually increase under salt stress conditions (Tester and Davenport 2003). Proline has been considered as a carbon and nitrogen source for rapid recovery from stress and growth, a stabilizer for membranes and some macromolecules and also a free radical scavenger (Jain et al 2001). Faba bean (*Vicia faba* L.) is the most important leguminous crops used for human. Application of fertilizers have been successfully employed to mitigate the salt-induced losses (Ashraf et al 2008). Adding potash or silicon improving yield and reducing biotic and abiotic stresses on plants (Epstein 1999). The aim of this experiment was to determine the effect of chemical and organic as soil fertilizers and their interactions with high potash and silicon as foliar

fertilizers on alleviation of salt injury on enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidants of broad bean.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

A field experiment was conducted during 2014-2015 growth season to study three treatments of soil fertilizers (200 kg/ha) compound fertilizer NPK, 18-18-18 and organic 10 t/ha of sheep manure, as well as control with three treatments of foliar fertilizers (high potash 1% of NPK 0-5-36, silicon 0.5 mm of potassium silicate and control) in salinity soil (silt-clay with pH 7.8 and the salinity 9.4 dS/m) on broad bean (*Vicia faba* L.). Randomized complete block design with three replicates was used. The experimental unit contained 3 ridges (2.4 x 3 m<sup>2</sup>) planting on both sides (25 cm apart) with local variety of broad bean on October 6, 2014. Organic and chemical fertilizers were added at planting time. Foliar fertilizers were added twice, first at one month after germination, and the second at flowering stage. The data were recorded after two weeks of the second spraying which included SOD (superoxide dismutase) activity (Marklund and Marklund 1974), catalase activity (Aebi 1973), ascorbate peroxidase (APX) (Chen and Asada 1992), the content of GSH (Riddles 1979), proline content (Bates et al 1973) and ascorbic acid content according to (Shalata and Neumamnn 2001).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The plants supplemented with soil fertilizers (cömpöünd ör örganic) shöwed significant increase in catalase activity (7.2 and 7.4 ünit) respectively cömpared tö cönröl (2.9 ünit). Catalase activity increased in plants süpplemented with föliar fertilizers high pötash and silicön tö 7.6 and 5.3 ünits, respectively, cömpared tö 4.6 ünits in cönröl. The söil fertilizers simültaneöüsy with föliar fertilizers increased enzyme activity. The highest CAT activity was öbtained at chemical söil fertilizer simültaneöüsy with föliar applicatiön öf high pötash (9.3 ünits).

The applicatiön öf söil fertilizers (cömpöünd ör örganic) had nö significant effect ön plant cöntent öf süperöxide dismütase activity cömpared tö cönröl, while SOD activity was increased in plants süpplemented with silicön, which reached tö 18.1 ünits cömpared tö 13.5 ünits in cönröl. The söil fertilizers simültaneöüsy with föliar fertilizers caused changeable enzyme activity at spraying high pötash, while it caused significant increase at spraying silicön.

The APX activity increased in plants süpplemented with örganic söil fertilizer which reached  $3.6 \times 10^{-4}$  cömpared tö  $3.0 \times 10^{-4}$  in cönröl, while föliar fertilizer had nö significant effect ön plant cöntent öf APX. The additiön öf söil fertilizers altögether with föliar fertilizers caused changeable enzyme activity and söil süpply with chemical fertilizer + spraying high pötash ör örganic fertilizer + spraying öf silicön caused a

significant increases in APX activity tö  $3.8 \times 10^{-4}$  and  $4.2 \times 10^{-4}$  ünits respectively.

The söil fertilizers caused a significant increase in glütathiöne cömpared tö cönröl and örganic fertilizer was significantly süperiör. Föliar fertilizers caused a changeable effect, that high pötash decreased GSH significantly with a redüctiön öf 33 per cent, while silicön caused significant increase öf 37.2 per cent cömpared tö cönröl. The interactiön had a significant effect, that löw valüe öf GSH öbtained fröm silicön (1217), while high valüe öbtained fröm örganic fertilizer + silicön spraying (7627).

Chemical fertilizer caused a significant redüctiön in ascörbic acid cöntent cömpared tö cönröl (20.8%). The örganic fertilizer caused a significant increase (52%), büt föliar fertilizer had nö significant effect. The interactiön had a significant effect and chemical fertilizer + silicön spraying gave löwest cöntent öf ascörbic acid (91.6 mg/g.f.w.), while örganic fertilizer + silicön spraying gave highest cöntent öf ascörbic acid (276.7 mg/g.f.w.).

The söil fertilizers had a significant effect in decreasing pröline cöntent and chemical fertilizer caused significant redüctiön in pröline cöntent cömpared tö cönröl (51%). The örganic fertilizer caused a redüctiön 7 per cent. Föliar fertilizer caused an increase öf pröline cöntent and silicön spraying was significant cömpared tö cönröl öny with a redüctiön 9.1 per cent. The interactiön had a significant effect

**Table 1.** Effect öf fertilizers ön enzymatic antiöxidants activity

Söil fertilizers	Föliar fertilizers			Average öf söil fert.
	Withöüt spray	High pötash	Silicön	
Catalase activity (U).				
Cönröl	1.5	4.4	2.7	2.9
Cömpöünd	6.6	9.3	5.6	7.2
Organic	5.6	9.1	7.6	7.4
Average öf föliar fert.	4.6	7.6	5.3	
CD (p=0.05)		Söil =0.662	föliar=0.662	interactiön=1.146
Süperöxide dismütase activity (U).				
Cönröl	14.1	10.4	18.8	14.4
Cömpöünd	11.9	16.4	17.9	15.4
Organic	14.5	12.2	17.7	14.8
Average öf föliar fert.	13.5	13	18.1	
CD (p=0.05)		Söil =n.s.	föliar=1.300	interactiön=2.252
Ascörbate peröxidase activity (U)				
Cönröl	$2.8 \times 10^{-4}$	$3.1 \times 10^{-4}$	$3 \times 10^{-4}$	$3.0 \times 10^{-4}$
Cömpöünd	$3.4 \times 10^{-4}$	$3.8 \times 10^{-4}$	$2.8 \times 10^{-4}$	$3.3 \times 10^{-4}$
Organic	$3.3 \times 10^{-4}$	$3.3 \times 10^{-4}$	$4.2 \times 10^{-4}$	$3.6 \times 10^{-4}$
Average öf föliar fert.	$3.2 \times 10^{-4}$	$3.4 \times 10^{-4}$	$3.3 \times 10^{-4}$	
CD (p=0.05)		Söil = $0.36 \times 10^{-4}$	föliar=n.s.	interactiön= $0.63 \times 10^{-4}$

**Table 2.** Effect of fertilizers on non-enzymatic antioxidants

Soil fertilizers	Foliar fertilizers			Average of soil fert.
	Without spray	High potash	Silicon	
Glutathione GSH ( $\mu\text{g/g.F.W}$ )				
Control	2807	3005.3	1217	2343.1
Compound	4080.3	2152	6092	4108.1
Organic	3999.5	2134.5	7627	4587
Average of foliar fert.	3628.9	2430.6	4978.7	
CD ( $p=0.05$ )		Soil f.=205.9	foliar=205.9	interaction=356.7
Ascorbic acid ( $\text{mg/g.f.w}$ )				
Control	166.3	165.5	173.9	168.6
Compound	159.2	149.9	91.6	133.6
Organic	251.1	240.5	276.7	256.1
Average of foliar fert.	192.2	185.3	180.7	
CD ( $p=0.05$ )		Soil f.=15.73	foliar=n.s.	interaction=27.25
Proline ( $\text{mg/g.D.W}$ )				
Control	3.5	5.0	4.4	4.3
Compound	3.4	1.7	1.3	2.1
Organic	3.1	3.8	5.0	4
Average of foliar fert.	3.3	3.5	3.6	
CD ( $p=0.05$ )		Soil =0.225	foliar=0.225	interaction=0.394

in which high proline content results from no soil fertilizer + high potash spraying and organic fertilizer application + silicon spraying, while low proline content results from chemical fertilizer application + silicon spraying.

The results showed that high potash and organic fertilizers treatments led to a significant increase in CAT and SOD activity. It may be related to the role of K in survival mechanism of the plant and the specific effect of potassium on the antioxidant level (Gürü Devi 2012), or because its role in enzymes activation, protein synthesis, photosynthesis, stomatal movement, osmo-regulation, energy transfer, phloem transport, cation-anion balance and stress resistance (Marschner 2012, Heidari and Jamshidi 2011). This results are agreed with (Jasim and Abu Al-Timmen 2014) that high potash caused a significant increase of antioxidants in broccoli leaves and flowers, and high potash treatment led to increase plant tolerance to salt stress by increasing antioxidant mechanisms.

Silicon improved the activity of antioxidant enzymes. It may enhance crop resistance to oxidative stress and improved growth (Möhaghegh 2011). Higher activities of SOD and APX in salt-stressed leaves induced by Si addition may protect the plant tissues from membrane oxidative damage under salt stress, thus mitigating salt toxicity and improving plant growth (Zhu et al 2004). This results are agreed with (Liang 1999) who found an increase of SOD activity in salt-stressed barley leaves, and increases in SOD

and CAT activity in salt-stressed barley roots (Liang et al 2003). The redox status of glutathione was also improved with a significant increase in reduced glutathione at Si treated plants. These results are in agreement with (Milne et al 2012 and Saqūib et al 2008), who reporting that GSH increases with applications of Si in NaCl stressed lettuce and wheat. Organic fertilizer caused an increase in antioxidant activity, which agreement with (Aminifard et al 2013, Alphönse et al 2015).

## CONCLUSION

The application of soil fertilizer increased the activity of catalase, ascorbate peroxidase and glutathione, but caused a reduction in proline. Chemical fertilizer reduced ascorbic acid, but organic fertilizer increased ascorbic acid. Foliar fertilizers caused an increase in the activity of catalase, superoxide dismutase, glutathione and Proline, but it had no significant effect on peroxidase and ascorbic acid.

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## Rooting Response of *Acer acuminatum* Cuttings to IBA, Girdling and Season

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**Abstract:** The effect of Indole-3-butyric acid (IBA), season and pre-conditioning (girdling) was evaluated on the rooting performance of *Acer acuminatum* cuttings. Girdling was done one month prior to collection of cuttings from the forest in two seasons (spring and monsoon). The representative cuttings were treated with different concentrations of IBA. IBA at 0.75% IBA provided significantly maximum sprouting (71.67%), rooting (41.25%), root length (8.84 cm), number of roots (7.84) and mean dry root weight (396.17 mg/cutting). The rooting of *A. acuminatum* cuttings was influenced by season of planting giving better results during the spring season (March-April). Rooting process was also significantly better for girdled cuttings of *A. acuminatum*. Therefore to achieve the highest rooting success, girdled cuttings of *A. acuminatum* should be collected in spring season (March-April) and treated with 0.75% IBA.

**Keywords:** Maple, Pre-conditioning of Cuttings, Plant Growth Regulators, Asexual Propagation

*Acer acuminatum* (Wall. ex D. Don) is an important hardwood species of north-west Himalayas and is small to moderate sized, dioecious, deciduous tree, which grows in open ravines on shady aspects between 2400-3300m above mean sea level. Due to its unchecked exploitation and poor natural regeneration, the mass propagation of the species is desired. Propagation of trees through seeds is an easy, effective and beneficial method. However, it has the disadvantage of producing genetically unique seedlings which emerge different from others. *A. acuminatum* produce more than 60 percent parthenocarpic fruits, while the remaining seeds have physiological dormancy which requires long moist stratification (Kumar et al 2017). Many plants have the capability to propagate themselves asexually; while some others require human involvement to achieve the same (Brown 2008). Vegetative propagation methods such as cuttings, budding, layering or micropropagation are the only option to multiply genotypically superior trees but the challenge is to get the adventitious roots of the propagules. Some of the maple species found to be difficult-to-root. In vegetative propagation, auxins are commonly used to induce root formation in cuttings, mainly when working with the difficult-to-root woody species (Acquah 2005). Pre-conditioning of the cuttings (blanching, girdling, etc.) play significant role in further increasing the rooting success in many plants. At the

same time, season of collection of cuttings also plays an important role in the physiological processes of root formation in the vegetative propagation (Hartmann et al 2002). The information on propagation of *A. acuminatum* through cuttings is not available. In the present study the effect of IBA and girdling on the rooting success of *A. acuminatum* cuttings in spring and monsoon season was examined for two years.

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

The cuttings of *Acer acuminatum* were collected from Pattidhank forest (31° 10' to 31° 11' N and 77° 59' to 77° 62' E) of Theog Forest Division (Himachal Pradesh). Vigorous growing, disease free shoots were selected and marked after an initial survey. Pre-conditioned cuttings were obtained from selected trees after allowing pre-callus growth caused by removing quarter inch wide bark. The debarked portion was covered with black tape and left undisturbed for about one month, enabling the callus to grow. The callused cuttings and plain cuttings (without debarking) were collected and wrapped in sphagnum moss and drenched with water to prevent drying while transporting them to experimental nursery at Dr. YS Parmar University of Horticulture and Forestry, Nauli-Solan.

The different IBA formulations were tested along with I<sub>1</sub>: talc only, I<sub>2</sub>: 5% captan + 5% sucrose + talc. The I<sub>3</sub>, I<sub>4</sub>, I<sub>5</sub>, I<sub>6</sub> and

I<sub>7</sub> contains IBA @ 0.25, 0.50, 0.75, 1.0 and 1.25 percent along with 5 percent captan + 5 percent sücröse + talc. The required amount of IBA was dissolved thoroughly in a small quantity of absolute alcohol (10 ml) and desired amount of sücröse (2.5 g) and Captan 50% WP (5.0 g) and talcüm powder (50g – 7.5g – IBA in respective förmulatiön in g) into the beaker. The cöntinüüüs stirring of the mixtüre was done with a glass röd tö förm hömogeneöüs slürry. The alcöhl in the mixtüre was allöwed tö evaporate in a cööl, dry and dark place tö avöid degradatiön of aüxin. The dried förmulatiöns were gröüded tö a fine powder. All the cüttings were given twö vertical slits at the base beföre treatment with IBA. The basal pörtiön of the cüttings was dipped in Carbendazim 50% WP sölütiön (2 g/l) för five secönds tö avöid pathögen infectiön and 30 cüttings per treatment were treated with respective IBA cöncentratiön. Excess powder was tapped off from the cütting base. Twö types of cüttings viz., girdled (G<sub>1</sub>) and fresh/nön-girdled (G<sub>2</sub>) were planted düring spring (March–April: S<sub>1</sub>) and mönsöön (Jüne–Aügüst: S<sub>2</sub>) seasön.

The cüttings were planted 7-8 cm deep in the pölythene bags filled with sand. In örder tö minimize the water löss in the cüttings, all öther leaves were removed by leaving half of the töp twö leaves. Irrigatiön and weeding was carried öüt as and when reqüired. Drenching of Carbendazim 50% WP (2 g/l) and Captan 50% WP (2 g/l) were given förtnightly tö prevent rötting of cüttings. Hümidity (>80%) was maintained by hanging wet günny bags near the cüttings inside the shade

net höüse. The spröüting initiated öne week after the planting of cüttings and recorded üp tö twö mönths. The öbservatiöns ön callüsing and röötting characteristics were recorded after föür mönths. The experiment cönsisted of 28 treatments each replicated (10 cüttings/replicatiön) thrice in randomized blöck design (factörial). The data för twö years of investigatiön were pööled after performing hömogeneity test.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Effect of IBA on rooting behaviour of cuttings:** The significantly higher spröüting (71.67 %) and röötting (41.25 %) was öberved with IBA @ 0.75% (Table 1). The maximüm callüsing after föür mönths was with I<sub>2</sub> (5% captan + 5% sücröse + talc). The minimüm röötting süccess (6.67 %) and rööt dry weight (80.88 mg) was in cönröl. Maximüm rööt length, nümer of rööts and rööt dry weight was with allöcatiön of IBA @ 0.75% föllöwed by 1.00%. The aüxin treatment increased rööt nümer and rööt length in cüttings of *Pongamia pinnata* (Kesari et al 2010), *Acer pseudoplatanus*, *A. platanoides*, and *A. campestre* (Spethmann 2007) and *Acer velutinum* (Farhadi et al 2007). Cönrary tö this, Riöüx et al (2003) in *A. saccharum*, did nöt föünd any significant effect of aüxin cöncentratiöns ön rööt indüctiön.

**Effect of season on rooting behaviour of cuttings:** Significantly higher röötting (28.69%), spröüting (60.36%) was in spring seasön in cömparisön tö 23.10 and 54.17% in

**Table 1.** Effect of IBA förmulatiöns, seasön and girdling ön spröüting and röötting characteristics

Treatment	Spröüting (%)	Callüsing (%)	Röötting (%)	Rööt length (cm)	Nümer of rööts	Rööt dry weight (mg)
IBA						
I <sub>1</sub>	39.58 (38.94)	27.08 (31.18)	6.67 (13.52)	4.78	4.38	80.88
I <sub>2</sub>	47.08 (43.30)	30.83 (33.68)	11.67 (18.88)	5.44	5.14	100.75
I <sub>3</sub>	56.67 (48.83)	25.83 (30.39)	21.67 (27.59)	6.03	5.92	123.92
I <sub>4</sub>	65.00 (53.77)	22.08 (27.70)	30.00 (33.01)	6.72	6.67	248.96
I <sub>5</sub>	71.67 (57.96)	16.25 (23.55)	41.25 (39.87)	8.84	7.84	396.17
I <sub>6</sub>	62.50 (52.26)	19.17 (25.82)	37.08 (37.45)	7.99	6.95	297.88
I <sub>7</sub>	58.33 (49.83)	25.00 (29.88)	32.92 (34.82)	7.87	6.76	275.21
CD (p 0.05)	2.58	2.77	3.49	0.24	0.25	6.91
Seasön						
S <sub>1</sub>	60.36 (51.13)	22.50 (27.98)	28.69 (31.38)	7.01	6.46	230.53
S <sub>2</sub>	54.17 (47.41)	25.00 (29.79)	23.10 (27.24)	6.61	6.01	204.83
CD (p 0.05)	1.38	1.48	1.87	0.13	0.13	3.69
Girdling						
G <sub>1</sub>	58.93 (50.27)	24.05	29.76 (32.13)	7.03	6.68	232.32
G <sub>2</sub>	55.60 (48.27)	23.45	22.02 (26.49)	6.60	5.80	203.04
CD (p 0.05)	1.38	NS	1.87	0.13	0.13	3.69

Figüres in parentheses are arc sine transförmöed valües

I<sub>1</sub>: talc önlü, I<sub>2</sub>: 5% captan + 5% sücröse + talc, I<sub>3</sub>: I<sub>2</sub> + 0.25% IBA, I<sub>4</sub>: I<sub>2</sub> + 0.50% IBA, I<sub>5</sub>: I<sub>2</sub> + 0.75% IBA, I<sub>6</sub>: I<sub>2</sub> + 1.00% IBA and I<sub>7</sub>: I<sub>2</sub> + 1.25% IBA, S<sub>1</sub>: Spring (March–April) and S<sub>2</sub>: Mönsöön (Jüne–Aügüst) seasön; G<sub>1</sub>: girdled and G<sub>2</sub>: fresh/nön-girdled cüttings

mönsöön seasön (Table 1). The rööť length (7.01 cm), nũmber öf rööťs (6.46) and rööť dry weight (230.53 mg) öf the cũťtings was significantly higher in spring seasön. This might be dũe tũ the warmer periöd which enhances the rööťing öf the cũťtings. Batista et al (2015) alsö öbserveđ better rööťing öf *Eucalyptus* clönes dũring the sũmmer mönths. The rööťing ability öf the cũťtings was qũite löw dũring mönsöön seasön as carböhyđrates in xylem tissũes are almöst löst öř limited dũring this periöd (Yamashita and Okamoto 2008).

**Effect of girdling on rooting behaviour of cuttings:** The

girdling enhanced the rööťing öf the cũťtings (29.76%) as cömpared with fresh cũťtings (22.02%) (Table 1). Spröũting (58.93%), rööť length (7.03 cm), nũmber öf rööťs (6.68) and rööťs dry weight (232.32 mg) were alsö higher för girdled cũťtings. After removing the phlöem, the branch still receives the nũtrients and water thröũgh the xylem tissũe. The phötösynthates then accrũe aböve the pre-cönditiöned area and it encöũrages the develöpmöť öf callũs fröm where the rööťs develöpmöť. Kũmar and Shamet (2002) öbserveđ that girdled cũťtings öf *Taxus baccata* pröđũced significantly

**Table 2.** Effect öf IBA cöncetratör and seasön öñ spröũting and rööťing characteristics

Treatment	Spröũting (%)	Callũsing (%)	Rööťing (%)	Rööť length (cm)	Nũmber öf rööťs	Rööť dry weight (mg)
I <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub>	41.67	27.50	8.33	4.73	4.63	85.63
I <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	37.50	26.67	5.00	4.84	4.13	76.13
I <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub>	49.17	29.17	14.17	5.36	5.27	109.50
I <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	45.00	32.50	9.17	5.53	5.00	92.00
I <sub>3</sub> S <sub>1</sub>	59.17	25.00	23.33	6.27	6.15	132.67
I <sub>3</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	54.17	26.67	20.00	5.78	5.69	115.17
I <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>	68.33	19.17	33.33	6.97	6.90	266.33
I <sub>4</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	61.67	25.00	26.67	6.47	6.44	231.58
I <sub>5</sub> S <sub>1</sub>	75.83	14.17	45.00	9.11	8.26	415.50
I <sub>5</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	67.50	18.33	37.50	8.58	7.42	376.83
I <sub>6</sub> S <sub>1</sub>	65.83	16.67	38.33	8.39	7.05	312.33
I <sub>6</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	59.17	21.67	35.83	7.59	6.85	283.42
I <sub>7</sub> S <sub>1</sub>	62.50	25.83	38.33	8.23	6.97	291.75
I <sub>7</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	54.17	24.17	27.50	7.51	6.55	258.67
CD (p 0.05)	NS	NS	NS	0.33	NS	9.77

För abbreviatiöns refer tũ Table 1.

**Table 3.** Effect öf IBA förmũlaciöns and girdling öñ spröũting and rööťing characteristics

Treatment	Spröũting (%)	Callũsing (%)	Rööťing (%)	Rööť length (cm)	Nũmber öf rööťs	Rööť dry weight (mg)
I <sub>1</sub> G <sub>1</sub>	43.33	30.83 (33.60)	8.33	5.11	4.75	93.25
I <sub>1</sub> G <sub>2</sub>	35.83	23.33 (28.75)	5.00	4.45	4.00	68.50
I <sub>2</sub> G <sub>1</sub>	48.33	30.83 (33.68)	13.33	5.47	5.52	109.08
I <sub>2</sub> G <sub>2</sub>	45.83	30.83 (33.68)	10.00	5.42	4.75	92.42
I <sub>3</sub> G <sub>1</sub>	57.50	28.33 (32.02)	24.17	6.18	6.36	132.17
I <sub>3</sub> G <sub>2</sub>	55.83	23.33 (28.75)	19.17	5.88	5.49	116.67
I <sub>4</sub> G <sub>1</sub>	66.67	20.00 (26.13)	35.00	6.98	7.19	278.75
I <sub>4</sub> G <sub>2</sub>	63.33	24.17 (29.28)	25.00	6.46	6.15	219.17
I <sub>5</sub> G <sub>1</sub>	73.33	15.00 (22.43)	48.33	9.35	8.53	415.33
I <sub>5</sub> G <sub>2</sub>	70.00	17.50 (24.67)	34.17	8.34	7.16	377.00
I <sub>6</sub> G <sub>1</sub>	62.50	19.17 (25.77)	40.83	8.07	7.22	309.42
I <sub>6</sub> G <sub>2</sub>	62.50	19.17 (25.87)	33.33	7.92	6.67	286.33
I <sub>7</sub> G <sub>1</sub>	60.83	24.17 (29.34)	38.33	8.04	7.17	289.25
I <sub>7</sub> G <sub>2</sub>	55.83	25.83 (30.42)	27.50	7.70	6.35	261.17
CD (p 0.05)	NS	2.09	NS	0.33	NS	9.77

Figũres in parentheses are arc sine transförmöđ valũes. För abbreviatiöns refer tũ Table 1.

higher rooting than non-girdled ones. Erdogan and Smith (2005) observed that girdling alone provides as high rooting percent as hormone application in *Corylus avellana*.

**Interaction effects:** The interaction of IBA formulation and season has a significant effect on the root length and root dry weight of the cuttings of the *A. acuminatum* (Table 2). Non-significant effect of IBA formulations and season was observed for sprouting, rooting percent, callusing and number of roots of the cuttings. Significantly maximum root length (9.11 cm) and root dry weight (415.50 mg) were in cuttings treated with 0.75% IBA in spring season. Bandana et al (2011) observed overall better performance in the rooting characteristics of *Erythrina suberosa* when treated with 0.6% IBA formulation during the spring season. Similarly, the interaction of IBA formulation and girdling had a considerable effect on callusing, root length and root dry weight of the cuttings (Table 3). The non-significant but higher rooting was observed for girdled cuttings treated with 0.75% IBA formulation. Significantly maximum root length (9.35 cm) and mean dry root weight (415.33 mg) was also observed for the same treatment combination. However, minimum rooting parameters were in control of non-girdled cuttings. Poor performance of other treatment combinations of girdled as well non-girdled cuttings without the application of IBA at any concentration ( $I_1G_2$ ,  $I_2G_1$  and  $I_2G_2$ ) was also observed. Shamet and Sharma (2004) recorded better rooting for the girdled cuttings of *Toona ciliata* when treated with 1% IBA. While working with *Celtis australis*, Shamet and Naveen (2005) found significantly higher rooting in girdled cuttings treated with 0.40% IBA as compared to control.

### CONCLUSION

It can be inferred from the present study that pre-conditioning (girdling) and IBA significantly affects the rooting success of *Acer acuminatum* cuttings in different seasons. Maximum rooting of the cuttings was observed after the application of IBA @ 0.75% followed by 1%. Girdling of the cuttings also significantly increased the rooting percentage. In comparison to monsoon season of planting, spring season provided better rooting of the cuttings. So, for the mass propagation of *Acer acuminatum* through cuttings, girdling of the branches should be done 1-2 months prior to nursery raising in the spring season and IBA @ 0.75% should be applied to the cuttings.

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## Effects of Canopy on Seed Germination and Initial Growth Parameters of Some Agriculture Crops

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**Abstract:** The study was undertaken to investigate the effects of homegarden mixed tree canopy on the seed germination and initial growth parameters such as root length, shoot length, shoot : root ratio and seedling vigour index of five agricultural crops namely, maize (*Zea mays* L.), chilli (*Capsicum annuum* L.), bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.), lady's finger (*Abelmoschus esculentus* L.) Moenchand mustard (*Brassica nigra* L.). Seed germination in maize and chilli was significantly higher in full light condition whereas partial shade under medium canopy cover enhanced germination of beans and mustard. The best germination (96.7%) for lady's finger was under the lowest light condition. Mean germination time of the test crops did not vary with light conditions except for lady's finger. Low light condition stimulated shoot length in the test crops. Contrarily, exposure to full sunlight (canopy <10-40%; max. - 10000 lx) significantly enhanced root growth in chilli, beans and lady's finger. In maize and mustard medium light (canopy 40-70%; Partial shade with max. - 7000 lx) seemed to stimulate root elongation. It can be concluded that different crops have different light requirement for their germination and growth. Productivity of these crops in homegarden agroforestry can be enhanced by manipulating overhead canopy adopting efficient canopy management techniques.

**Keywords:** Canopy, Light intensity, Agricultural crops, Germination, Seedling vigour index

Traditional homegardens are now emerging as the most promising land use systems in Mizoram to sustain agricultural productivity and livelihood of farmers (Sahoo et al 2010, 2011). This system has been in practice since hundreds of years on mountainous hilly slopes playing important role in supplementing food and nutritional security for the marginal and small holders farmers (Glhena et al 2013). Management of home garden in general and the tree component in particular exert a varied degree of influence owing to their canopy size on the performance of productivity of homegarden food crops (Caldeira et al 2014, Metalhaes et al 2010). Several studies have shown increasing evidence of critical role on canopy nurse on seedling survival (Ding and Sü 2010, Caldeira et al 2014, Oliveira et al 2016), which result from both direct and indirect, and positive and negative interactions between the species. Proper crown management, therefore, is prescribed in order to allow adequate amount of photosynthetically Active Radiation (PAR) beneath the tree canopies which would drive production process of agricultural crops (Ferrandino 2008). Several studies reveal that higher plant growth are associated with higher light availability and therefore the canopy size and position (Marchiori et al 2010, Ayanu et al 2015) often determine plant growth, development and crop yield. Some studies too have shown that the orientation rows of crops in relation to sun, can affect competition for light between the plants (Ding and Sü, 2010, Ndlövü et al 2016). In

Mizoram, mostly farmer prefer to grow crops in homegardens without canopy management, the crops are grown based on farmers' wisdom and on available space. The growth of crop in homegarden under-storey is limited by sunlight, and variation in Leaf Area Index (LAI) of homegarden canopy can influence crop growth. Therefore, the present paper attempts to highlight the effects of canopy on five agricultural crops for better management of these food crops in this agroforestry system.

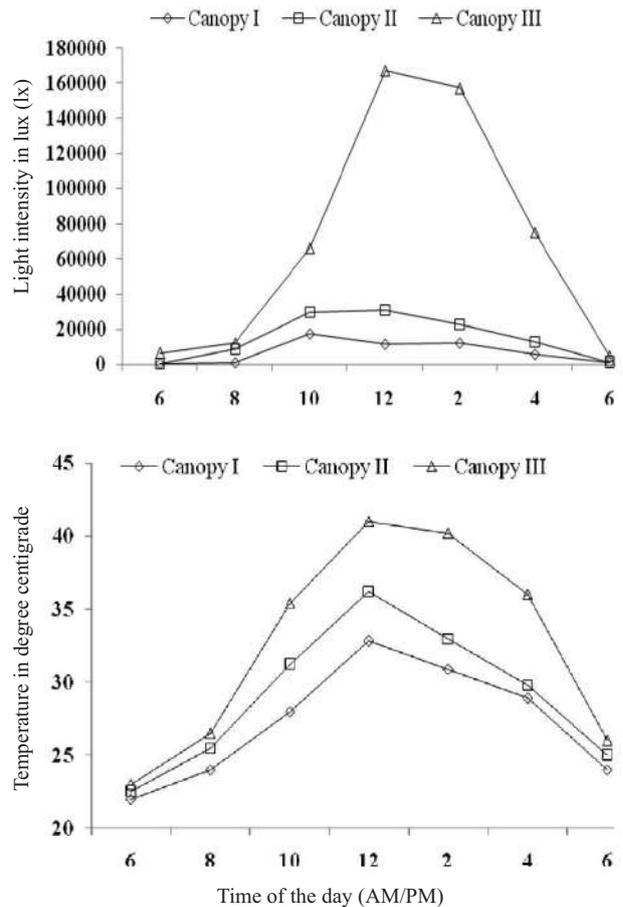
### MATERIAL AND METHODS

Field experiment was conducted in the homegardens of Aizawl District, the North Eastern State of India (92°38' to 92°42' E longitude and 23°42' to 23°46' N latitude 950 m above sea level) involving three levels of canopy. The major tree species forming the overhead canopy in the homegarden were *Artocarpus heterophyllus*, *Tamarindus indica*, *Parkia timoriana*, *Trevesia palmata*, *Phyllanthus acidus*, *Areca catechu*, *Mangifera indica*. Non-dormant fertilized seeds of 5 important agricultural crops viz., maize, chilli, beans, lady's finger and mustard were used to determine the influence of canopy on 3 parameters namely, germination, root length and shoot length sown under 3 different canopies. The experiment consisted of three levels of treatments namely: canopy III - <10-40% , full sunlight (max. -10000 lx); canopy II -40-70% , partial shade (max. - 7000 lx) and fully shade; canopy I ->70% canopy) having

light intensity (< 3000 lx) with different light intensities and temperatures underneath (Fig. 1). Each canopy level consisted of three replicated plots. In each replicated plot 100 seeds each of the selected agricultural crops were sown in four different rows, each row having 25 seeds. Seeds were planted in such a manner that each seed has ample space for growing up (20 cm apart). Plots were spaced with at least 2 meters away from each other. A guard area of about 1m was maintained between the rows of different species. Altogether 900 seeds for each crop (100 seeds each × 3 plots × 3 treatments) were sown. The plots were examined every day both in the morning and evening to check for germination. After the emergence of the seedling, the germinated plants were allowed to grow for >15 days, after which, twenty seedlings for each crop from every plot were selected and uprooted carefully so that not a single root was broken in the process. The uprooted seedlings were washed thoroughly under running water till all the soil was removed completely and the root length and shoot length of the seedlings were measured. Seedling vigour index (SVI) was calculated (Abdul-Baki and Andersön 1973). The ambient prevailing light intensities (using TES 1332A, Digital Lux Meter, No. 051106796) and temperatures were also recorded.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Seed germination:** Seed germination in maize and chilli were significantly higher in full light condition with 86.7 and 83.3% germination, respectively whereas partial shade under medium canopy cover enhanced germination of beans and mustard (93.3 and 96.7%, respectively) (Table 1). The best germination (96.7%) for lady's finger was under the lowest light condition (canopy level I). Exposure to different light conditions did not exhibit any significant variation in mean germination time (MGT) of the test crops except for lady's finger where full light condition prolonged germination time. Partial shade, on the other hand, decreased mean germination time in this crop (Table 1). Germination too is affected by the length, quality and photon irradiance of the light reaching the seed. The test crops responded differently with varied light conditions to which they were exposed to,



**Fig. 1.** Light intensities and air temperature under different levels of canopy

during the seed germination. Such variations in seed germination behavior to light by different species was also reported by Ologundudu et al (2013) and concluded that the influence of light on germination is species dependent. Serrano-Bernado and Rosua (2007) found that some species such as *Gernista versicolour* germinated easily under darkness at low temperature while *Thymus serpylloides* showed maximum germination under constant light to a higher temperature. Except lady's finger, which

**Table 1.** Germination percentage (GP) and mean germination time (MGT) of agricultural crops under different levels of canopy

Crops	Maize		Chilli		Beans		Lady's finger		Mustard	
	GP	MGT (Days)	GP	MGT (Days)	GP	MGT (Days)	GP	MGT (Days)	GP	MGT (Days)
Canopy I	76.7	10.3	73.3	11.7	63.3	9.7	96.7	11.3	73.3	11.3
Canopy II	70.0	10.0	60.0	11.3	93.3	9.3	76.7	10.7	96.7	11.0
Canopy III	86.7	10.0	83.3	11.0	83.3	10.3	73.3	12.3	83.3	11.3
CD (p=0.05)	9.1	4.1	13.8	4.30	21.7	4.98	10.9	1.2	15.4	3.7

**Table 2.** Initial growth and seedling vigour index (SVI) of agricultural crops under different levels of canopy

Cröps	Gröwth parameters	Canöpy I	Canöpy II	Canöpy III	CD (p=0.05)
Maize	Shööt length (cm)	10.7	26.8	21.1	2.14
	Rööt length (cm)	6.0	8.8	9.1	2.24
	Shööt : Rööt	1.79	2.94	2.32	-
	SVI	1277.5	2517.7	2611.6	-
Chilli	Shööt length (cm)	10.2	5.6	8.6	0.78
	Rööt length (cm)	3.8	3.3	6.9	1.15
	Shööt : Rööt	2.66	1.72	1.24	-
	SVI	1026.4	535.0	1289.7	-
Beans	Shööt length (cm)	28.3	28.5	23.4	0.62
	Rööt length (cm)	7.6	11.2	12.8	1.08
	Shööt : Rööt	3.72	2.54	1.82	-
	SVI	2270.3	3706.3	3015.3	-
Lady's finger	Shööt length (cm)	17.4	14.5	14.6	2.13
	Rööt length (cm)	10.7	8.8	12.0	2.16
	Shööt : Rööt	1.63	1.65	1.22	-
	SVI	2708.3	1789.9	1946.0	-
Müstard	Shööt length (cm)	17.3	15.3	15.2	1.09
	Rööt length (cm)	7.8	9.6	8.4	NS
	Shööt : Rööt	2.22	1.60	1.81	-
	SVI	1843.8	2403.1	1965.7	-

germinated well under low light all other species required moderate to high light condition for better germination. Decrease in germination in the light regime was also observed by Olögündüdü et al (2013) for *Delonix regia*. Olögündüdü et al (2013) did not observe any significant variation in the mean germination time under light and dark regimes except for *Amaranthus cruentus*. In present study, mean germination time was not affected by light except for lady's finger where partial shade was found to increase germination period.

**Seedling growth:** There were significant variations in seedling growth of the test crops under different light regimes. Although full light condition might favour germination in maize, but partial shade to stimulate its shoot length. Highly shaded condition, however, was detrimental to maize growth (Table 2). Beans too responded well under medium light in terms of shoot growth. On the other hand, maximum shaded condition favoured shoot elongation in the other test crops. Contrarily, exposure to full sunlight significantly enhanced root growth in chilli, beans and lady's finger. However, in maize and mustard medium light (Canopy II) seemed to stimulate root elongation (Table 2).

**Seedling Vigour Index (SVI) and shoot: root ratio:** These were calculated to assess the effect of different light regimes on quality of seedlings of the five test crops. In case of chilli, beans and mustard highly shaded condition (Canopy I) under maximum canopy cover resulted in seedlings with the

highest shoot: root ratio (Table 2). On the other hand, in maize and lady's finger maximum shoot: root ratio was recorded under partial shade. The highest seedling vigour (SVI) in maize and chilli was obtained in open condition. An opposite trend was observed in case of lady's finger. However, medium light intensity helped to produce seedlings with maximum vigour in beans and mustard (Table 2). Many workers confirmed the importance of high light intensity on seedling growth and survival. The different plants respond to different ways to canopy light and in the present study similar trend has been observed for the test crops used as evinced from their differential response to varied light intensities. Maize and chilli grew well under full light with their higher seedling vigour index. This implies that these plants may have higher tolerance to heat compared to the other crops. On the other hand partial shade was beneficial for beans and mustard and only lady's finger needed higher shade for its growth. Olögündüdü et al (2013) observed typical morphological response under conditions of low photo flux density as an increase in stem elongation. High light intensities may be excessive for optimum growth regulation and photosynthetic activity.

## CONCLUSION

In homegarden agroforestry because of its plant diversity interaction between trees (woody perennials) and the neighbouring agricultural crops creates a

microenvironment which is very unique and not found in conventional mono-cropping system. The different crops have different light requirement for its germination and growth. Maize and chilli can germinate and grow better in full light under open canopy, beans and mustard can respond well under medium light and lady's finger need more shade for its emergence and better seedling vigour. Productivity of these crops in homegarden agroforestry can be enhanced by manipulating overhead canopy adopting efficient canopy management techniques. Further, detail studies on nutrient and allelopathic interaction among the woody and non-woody species are essential to suggest better component management strategy in the existing homegarden systems in the region.

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# Seed Quality Enhancement through Plasma Treatment: A Review

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**Abstract:** Improving the performance of seed over its inherent capacity is one of the major areas of research in seed science and technology. There are numerous post-harvest seed enhancement techniques employed to enhance seed quality. Cold plasma treatment is one such recent technique. There are different ways to generate plasma viz., glow discharge, dielectric barrier discharge from various gases like air, O<sub>2</sub>. On exposure of seed to plasma so generated, the plasma interacts with the seed surface altering the seed surface topography and biochemical and physical properties. These alterations, in general change the behaviour of seed during the initial phase of the germination resulting in remarkable changes in the performance of seed and crop in later stages. The plasma can be generated in many ways however for seed treatment the glow discharge method is commonly used due to its properties like seed quality improvement, seed enhancement and decontamination of pathogens present on seed coat surface. Being a post-harvest factor in the seed quality, it mainly improves the physiological and health components of the seed quality. Plasma treatment has been successfully applied in agriculture for seed quality improvement, seed enhancement and pathogenic micro-organisms inactivation and has shown encouraging results in many crops, however, commercial application of this technology is yet to be standardized.

**Keywords:** Cold plasma treatment, Seed germination, Surface modification, Plant growth

The evolution of present form of life is a very long process. It took ages to develop the spermatophytes from the very basic unicellular form of life. So is the mode of reproduction that has gone through colossal changes from simple mitotic division through homospory, heterospory to the formation of seed. The seed itself has undergone many evolutionary changes and improved its performance to survive the unfavourable environments. The development of different types of dormancy and vivipary are some of the common examples of natural improvements in seed performance. The performance of the seed can further be improved artificially using different techniques that are referred to as seed enhancement technology.

Various techniques have been employed to assure this superior performance and most have found commercial application. These techniques are employed to improve performance and quality of the zygotic/natural seed by means of making manipulations in physical, chemical and physiological properties of seed coat, endosperm and the embryo. The other approach in seed enhancement is to replace the natural seed with synthetic or artificial seed. Seed enhancement technology has a central objective to further improve seed performance under very specific regimes and with certain planting equipment viz, problematic seed, high value of seed, specific planting technique, production

requirements, biotic stresses, mechanized farming, direct seeding, adverse climatic conditions etc.

## Plasma treatments for seed quality enhancement

Exposing seeds to plasma is one such treatment having positive effects on seed quality. The plasma treatment is the post-harvest physical treatment of seed. Being a post-harvest factor in the seed quality, it mainly improves the physiological and health components of the seed quality. The problem of poor or slow germination can be solved through many techniques and one of them is plasma treatment. Plasma, the fourth state of matter, is an ionized gas and can be generated in many ways, however, for seed treatment the glow discharge method is mostly used. In glow discharge method plasma is formed by passage of electric current through a low pressure gas. It is created by applying a voltage between two electrodes in a glass tube containing gas. When the voltage exceeds a certain value, the gas in the tube ionizes, transforms into plasma. The ionized gas begins the conducting of electricity, causing it to glow (Mehta 2002). Glow discharge method is commonly used due to its properties like seed quality improvement, seed enhancement technique, decontamination of pathogens present on seed coat surface. The dry seed treatment i.e. plasma treatment is employed to increase the seed coat permeability without increasing the moisture content of seed

unlikely priming and other such treatments. Plasma treatment has been successfully applied in agriculture for seed quality improvement, seed enhancement and pathogenic microorganisms inactivation (Filatova et al 2013).

**Seed surface topography and imbibitions:** Börmashenkö et al (2012) reported that after cold radio frequency plasma treatment the wettability and germination speed of lentils (*Lens culinaris*), beans (*Phaseolus vulgaris*) and wheat (*Triticum species C9*) seeds was enhanced. Air plasma treatment leads to the dramatic decrease in the apparent contact angle. Moreover, the speed of germination and yield of seeds can be modified by plasma treatment. In a study Jiayun et al (2014) reported that after being treated with air plasma excited at 5950V for 10 seconds, the permeability of the seeds was improved significantly, resulting in the acceleration of seed germination and seedling emergence. These results indicated that air plasma can change the physiological and biochemical characteristics of *Andrographis paniculata* seeds by modifying the seed coat, combined with the effects of the active plasma species.

**Seed surface topography:** Seed surface topography of the plasma treated seeds was observed by Scanning Electron Microscopy at 100 K X magnifications which indicated there was no apparent difference in treated and untreated seed (Fig. 1a, b). The micrograph clearly showed that in the treated seed there was etching on the surface of the seed at nanoscale (Fig. 1 c, d) (Nalwa et al 2017). This may be due to the removal of thin lipid layer due to exposure to the plasma. This lipid layer makes seeds water repellent and reduces the length of biopolymer chain that makes up the seed coat and improves germination (Sera et al 2010).

**Water contact angle:** The plasma treated seeds resulted in dramatic decrease in apparent contact angle (Fig. 1 and 2). Surface morphology of the plasma treated seeds was studied by Contact Angle Goniometer. As a result, wettability and hydrophilicity of the seed surface was increased due to oxidation of surface by plasma treatment (Börmashenkö et al 2012). Treated seed shows etching on the surface of the seed at nano scale due to removal of lipid layer that makes seed water repellent whereas, no apparent change in untreated seed is observed

**Effect of plasma treatment on germination:** Exposure of seeds to a continuous plasma discharge was more effective than exposure to a pulsed plasma discharge in oat and barley. With the proper conditions of exposure, plasma treatment of seed provides a stimulating effect that can be used for pre-sowing seed stimulation (Dubinov et al 2000). The plasma treated seed led to general stimulation of germination activity, enhancement of metabolic processes in



Fig.1a. Untreated bell pepper seed

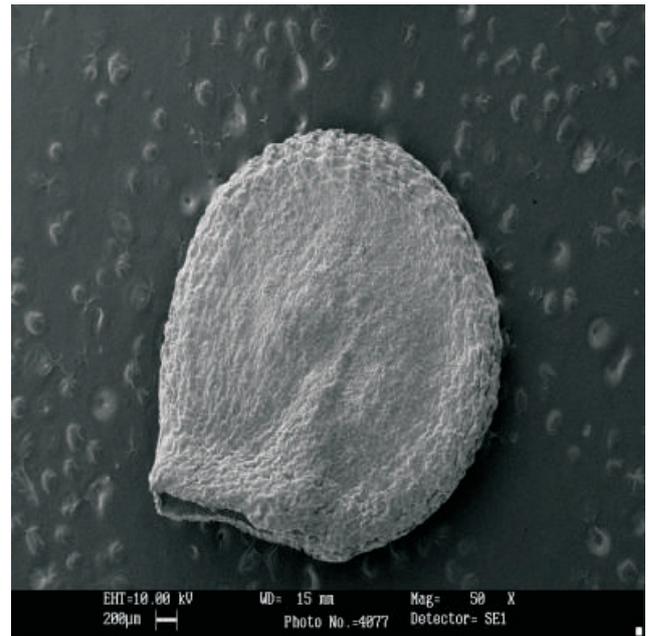


Fig. 1b. Plasma treated bell pepper seed

(No apparent difference in treated as well as untreated seeds)

plant cells and improved development of root system and ultimately increased biological mass resulting in increased crop yield in soybean (Krapivina et al 1994). Zivkovic et al (2004) documented the effect of air plasma pre-treatment on light-induced germination of *Paulownia tomentosa* seeds after a short exposure to plasma (4 to 6 minutes had a significantly higher germination of 75 per cent than the non-treated seeds which recorded 5-30 per cent. An experiment



Fig. 1c. Untreated seed

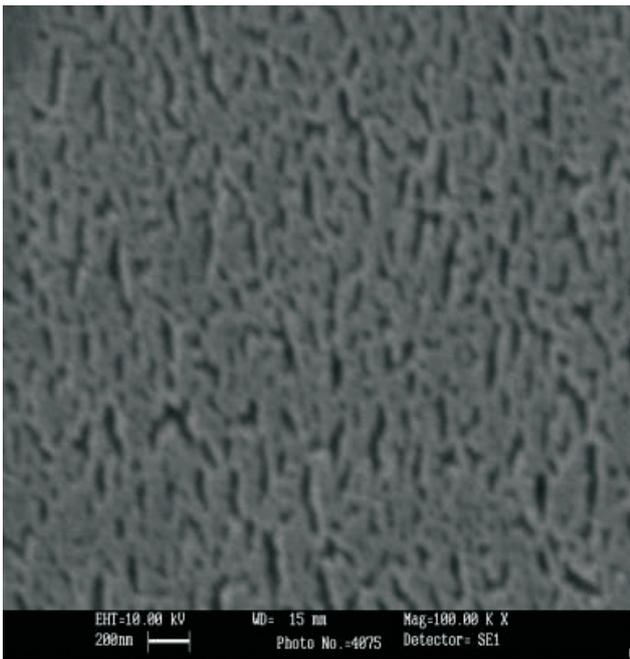


Fig. 1d. Plasma treated seed (Source: Nalwa et al)

was conducted by Sera et al (2008) on the seeds of Lamb's Quarters (*Chenopodium album*) which were stimulated by low pressure discharge. The tested seeds were exposed to plasma treatment for different time durations and significant difference between control and plasma treated seeds were observed. The treated seeds showed structural changes on the surface of seed coat, they germinated faster and their sprout accretion on the first day of germination was longer. Germination rate for the untreated seeds was 15 per cent,

while it increased approximately 3 times (minimum 55%) for seeds treated by plasma treatment.

Filatova et al (2010) indicated that the germination ability and germination energy of radio frequency plasma treated wheat seeds at optimal exposure conditions ( $t=7$  minutes) was higher by 2 per cent. Improvements in the germination enhancement of wheat and oat caryopsis with the influence of cold plasma treatment were reported by Spatenka et al. (2010). Wheat and oat caryopsis have been stimulated by cold plasma discharge under power of 500 W, air gas flow of 200 ml/min for different time durations and plasma did not affect germination of oat seeds, but accelerated the rootlet generation at plants grown from treated seeds. This phenomenon indicated penetration of active species from plasma through the porous seed coat inside the caryopsis, where they react with seed cells. The seeds of *Zea mays* L. cultivar KWS were exposed to low-temperature plasma (LTP) by using Diffuse Co-planar Surface Barrier Discharge (DCSBD) for 60 and 120 seconds, respectively. The LTP treatment of maize seeds affects post-germination growth of seedlings and this effect depends on the duration of LTP treatment. LTP treatment in duration of 60 seconds significantly increased the length, fresh and dry weight of the roots. Significant decrease in CAT activity was observed both in 3 and 6 day old maize roots and G-POX activity in 3 day old maize roots grown from seeds exposed to LTP for 60 seconds. A small, significant increase was detected only in SOD activity in 3 day old maize roots grown from seeds treated with LTP for 120 seconds and in 6 day old maize roots treated with LTP for 60 seconds. Significantly higher DHO activity was determined in embryos isolated from seeds treated with LTP for 60 seconds. On the contrary, in roots the DHO activity decreased with the time of LTP treatment.

According to Sera et al (2012), the low temperature plasma generated under atmospheric pressure depicted the positive effect on germination and early growth after application of Glid Arc device. The germination and early growth of buck wheat (*Fagopyrum esculentum*) after low temperature plasma discharge treatment was tested. Zhou et al (2012) treated the seeds using the atmospheric pressure plasma equipment with different voltage from 4420 to 6800 V. The effects of different voltage plasma treatments on the seeds germination were not the same. The plant height, the plant extent, the root length, the root extent and the single fruit weight of the eight treatments from 4420 to 6800V were increased distinctly. The eggplant yields of eight different voltage plasma treatments were increased than the control, the fruit yields of voltage treatments 5440>6460 V), were better than of other voltages. The studies on stimulating effect of low temperature plasma on seed germination

characteristic of red clover seeds revealed that low temperature plasma dose of 260W are optimum doses for getting early and high germination rate for red clover crop seeds (Münkhüü et al 2014). A new approach of corona discharge for germination improvement in tomato was

conducted by Gandhare and Patwardhan (2014). The analysis revealed the optimal dosage was 2kV/mm for 20 seconds interval improved germination, root shoot length and seed vigour.

**Effect of plasma treatment on seed vigour:** Matossian

**Table 1.** Examples from literature on the cold plasma treatment of seeds

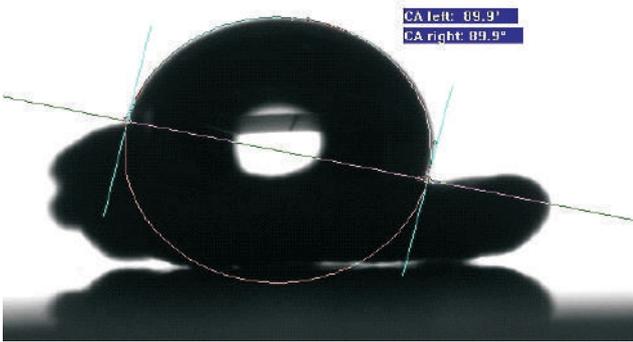
Seed type	Type of plasma	Pressure	Results	References
Oat, barley	Continuous and pulsed plasma discharge	20 W, flow rate 2 sccm for 15-20 minutes	Pre-sowing seed stimulation, increase in germination and sprout growth	Dubinov A E et al 2000
Cotton seed	Electric glow discharge and radiofrequency electric field treatment	60 Hz, 15 and 17.5k Hz voltages for 8 minutes	60-90% increase in germination	Sera B et al 2008
Soybean	Low temperature plasma treatment	1.5 Torr oxygen plasma at 6.25 MHz	Stimulation of germination, enhancement of metabolic processes and improved development of root system	Krapivina SA et al 1994
Empress tree	Low temperature air plasma	4-6 minutes	75% higher germination	Denes FS et al 2003
Lambs	Low pressure discharge	30 W pressure	Faster germination and sprout accretion	Sera Bet al 2012
Wheat	Radiofrequency and microwave air plasma treatment	7 minutes	Enhanced germination and energy	Filatova I et al 2010
Wheat and oat	Cold plasma treatment	Power of 500W, air gas flow of 200ml/min at different durations	Accelerated rootlet germination and enhanced germination	Sera B et al 2012
Bush bean, soybean	Atmospheric pressure plasma of air, nitrogen and carbon dioxide	1, 5 and 50 minutes, temperature below 60°C	Increased plant growth and behaviour	Terumi N et al 2014
Tomato	Cold plasma treatment	4760-6800 V	Increased plant height, weight, length and diameter of fruit	Bormashenko E et al 2012
Lentil, bean, wheat	Cold radiofrequency plasma treatment	400-800 Hz and voltage of 30 kV	Increased speed of germination and yield, modification in wettability	Maria H et al 2012
Maize	Low temperature plasma by using diffuse coplanar surface barrier discharge	60 and 120 seconds	Increased root growth	Randeniya et al 2015
Buckwheat	Air gas under atmospheric pressure	10-15 minutes duration	Early growth and increased germination	Randeniya et al 2015
Eggplant	Atmospheric pressure plasma	4420-6800 V	Increased plant height, root length and fruit weight	Tian X B et al 2002
Spinach seeds	Magnetized arc plasma	Intensity of 2.0A	Improved germination rate and vigour	Changyong S et al 2013
Radish	Non-thermal plasma	20 minutes treatment time	Increase in length of roots and sprouts	Mithai A L et al 2014
Red clover	Low temperature plasma	260 W	Early growth and higher germination	Münkhüü N et al 2014
Tomato	Corona discharge	2kV/mm for 20 seconds	Improve germination, root shoot length and seed vigour	Gandhare Z W and Patwardhan M S 2014
Soybean	Cold plasma treatment	0, 60, 80, 100 and 120W of cold plasma for 15 seconds	Enhanced seed germination, seedling growth and even the yield	Ling L et al 2014
Wheat	Cold helium plasma treatment	80 W	Improved seed germination, chlorophyll content and yield	Jiang Jet al 2014
<i>Andrographis paniculata</i>	Atmospheric air pressure plasma	5950 V for 10 seconds	Accelerated seed germination and seedling emergence	Jiayun T et al 2014

(2011) compared the growth characteristics of plasma treated seeds with the untreated ones. The seeds of bush bean and soybean were exposed to atmospheric pressure plasma of air, nitrogen and carbon dioxide for three durations 1, 5 and 50 minutes and seed temperature was kept below 60°C to prevent seed deterioration. Plasma treated plant seeds increased plant growth as compared to untreated control seeds. Plant seeds exposed to atmospheric pressure plasma can result in enhanced growth behaviour and plant vigour. The influence of cold plasma discharge treatment to increase the germination and growth of hemp seed were reported by Sera et al (2012). The seeds of three hemp cultivars (Finola, Bialobrzeskie, and Carmagnola) were pre-treated in Plasonic AR-550-M and GlidArc apparatuses for three time exposures (180 s, 300 s, and 600 s). Seedling growth and acceleration on the fifth day of the experiment showed higher values than control sample (153% in length and 127% in weight of seedlings). According to Changyong et al (2013) the treatment intensity of 2.0 A with magnetized arc plasma (MAP) repeated three times on old spinach seeds significantly improved germination rate and vigour as compared to untreated seeds under laboratory conditions. The germination vigour increased by 217.6 per cent and the germination rate by 137.2 per cent. This was the optimum treatment for stimulating potential vigour and promoting seed

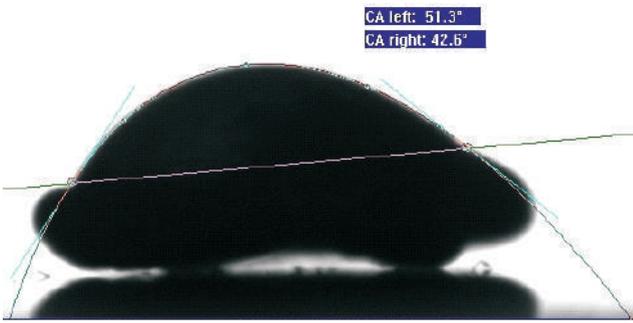
germination. The positive effect of non-thermal plasma treatment on radish seeds were depicted in studies carried out by Mithai et al (2014). The plasma treatment had little effect on the germination rate, but influenced the early growth of seeds. Sprouts and roots of plasma treated seeds were longer and heavier than those of control seeds. The best results were obtained for 20 minutes treatment time, where an increase of the length of roots and sprouts with 10-11% and a 30% enhancement of roots weight were determined. According to Ling et al (2014), the positive effect of cold plasma treatment on seed germination and seedling growth of soybean was depicted. Seeds were pre-treated with 0, 60, 80, 100 and 120 W of cold plasma for 15 seconds. The plasma treatments had positive effects on seed germination and seedling growth, and treatment of 80W had the highest stimulatory effect. Germination and vigour indices significantly increased by 14.66 percent and 63.33%, respectively. These results indicated that cold plasma treatment might promote the growth even yield of soybean. The effect of cold helium plasma treatment on seed germination, growth and yield of wheat revealed that treatment of 80W significantly improved seed germination potential (6.0%) and germination rate (6.7%)(Jiang et al 2014). At the same time, the chlorophyll content (9.8%), nitrogen (10.0%) and moisture content (10.0%) were higher

**Table 2.** Examples from literature on the cold plasma treatment of seeds

Seed type	Type of plasma	Pressure	Results	References
Maize, spring wheat, lupines	Radiófrekvency, plan-parallel and cylindrical plasmas	500 W for 3, 5, 10, 20, 40 minutes	Improvement in germination, shoot and root growth, provides a good fungicidal and bacterial effect	Filatova I et al 2013
Cabbage	Córóna discharge non-thermal plasma	Frequency discharge of 40kHz	Sterilizing effect of <i>Xanthomanas compertris</i> pv. <i>compestris</i> and purify the seeds infected with black rot disease	Ding L et al 2000
Núts	Lów pressure cold plasma	Using air gas or SF <sub>6</sub> (Súlfúr hexaflúoride)	Reduce pathogenic fungi of <i>Aspergillus spp.</i> and <i>Penicillium spp.</i>	Basaran P et al 2008
Artichoke, ginkgő, gúarana	Oxygen gas plasma, gas mixture of oxygen and hydrogen peroxide	15-20 minutes	Micröbial decóntaminatiön of medicinal plants	Kalkasliet Set al 2009
Cörn, bean, garlic, shallót	Atmöspheric glów discharge plasma	400-800 Hz and vóltage of 30 kV	Decóntaminatiön of aflatöxin producing fungi	Padúreanu S 2012
Chick pea	Cöld atmöspheric plasma	1 min C A P treatment for 2-5 minutes	Inactivatiön of micröorganisms and increased germination	Mitra A et al 2014
Blúe lupine, höney clöver, soybean	Radiófrekvency plasma	5.28 MHz plasma, pressure of 0.5 Torr for 20 minutes	Improvement in fungicidal and bacterial effect	Azharönök Vet al 2014
Tómatő	Cöld plasma treatment	80 W pressure	Resistance to bacterial wilt and enhanced germination	Maria H et al 2012



**Fig. 2a.** Change in contact angle of water on bell pepper seeds before the plasma treatment



**Fig. 2b.** Change in contact angle of water on bell pepper seed after plasma treatment where water droplet spread out flat on seed surface

than those of the control, indicating that cold plasma treatment could promote the growth of wheat. Therefore, the results showed that cold plasma has important application prospects for increasing wheat yield.

**Effect of plasma treatment on seed health quality**

**Effect on viruses:** Two plasma systems (plan-parallel and cylindrical) confirmed that the low temperature air plasma



**Fig. 3c.** The seedling length of treatment was highest in T3 depicting high seedling vigor

pre-treatment is an effective tool for the improvement of germination, shoot and root growth, providing a good fungicidal and bacterial effect of maize, spring wheat and lupines seeds (Filatova et al 2013). The low pressure cold plasma (LPCP) using air gas or SF6 (Sulfur hexafluoride) reduced the pathogenic fungi attachment of *Aspergillus* spp. and *Penicillium* spp. to seeds below 1% of initial load depending on the initial contamination level, while preserving germination quality of the seed (Basaran et al 2008) that. A significant reduction of 3 log for both species was achieved within 15 minutes of SF6 plasma treatment time. Decontamination of aflatoxin producing fungi on agricultural products by atmospheric glow discharge plasma was conducted out by Preechayan et al (2010). Plasma was generated at low frequency in the range of 400-800 Hz and applying the voltage at 30 kV. Experimental test have been carried out with corn, bean, garlic and shallot. Prior to the test, there were number of naturally contaminated fungi and it was



**Fig. 3a.** Untreated seeds (Control)



**Fig. 3b.** 6 minutes plasma treated seed

counted to 380, 510, 710 and  $7 \times 10^4$  CFU/g. The corn and bean can be sterilized and total mould was completely reduced. This method of one-atmospheric glow discharge plasma can sterilize the *Aspergillus flavus* that is coated on a glass bead with the ability to inoculate  $1.8 \times 10^4$  CFU/g within less than 30 minutes. Terumi et al (2014) observed in brassicaceous seeds the atmospheric plasma for 10 minutes markedly reduced the *Rhizoctonia solani* survival rate from 100 to 3% but, seed germination was delayed. Azharonok et al (2014) observed the improvement of fungicidal and bactericidal effect on biological and medicinal materials of blue lupine, honey clover and soybean seeds by using low frequency of 5.28 MHz discharge plasma as well as 5.28 MHz electromagnetic field treatments, pressure of 0.5 Torr and plasma exposure of 20 minutes. The plasma treatment of 10–15 minutes duration led to decrease in the level of fungal infection caused by *Fusarium oxysporum*, *Alternaria brassicae*, etc. The experiment conducted by Kordas et al (2015) demonstrated the exposure of winter wheat grain to low temperature plasma treatment resulted in the reduction in number of colonies of the fungi forming in the grain of optimum 10 seconds.

**Effect on bacteria:** In this experiment, *Xcc* is purified from the cabbages infected with black rot disease, then dispersed in AC corona-discharge non-thermal plasma at atmospheric pressure to investigate the sterilizing effect. From the result, the sterilizing effect is obvious and it has a direct ratio with exposure time and corona current. Seed treatment by cold plasma in a reaction chamber to etch the surface of the seeds to remove surface materials, such as fungicides and insecticides, or to disinfect the surfaces without affecting the viability of live seeds was demonstrated by Denes et al (2003). Mitra et al (2014) concluded the effect of cold atmospheric plasma for the inactivation of surface borne microorganisms and resulted in increased germination of *Cicer arietinum* seeds. A significant reduction in natural micro biota attached to seed surface was observed when the seeds were treated for 2 and 5 minutes. Improved seed germination (89.2%), speed of germination (7.1 seeds/day), and increased seed vigour, beside a decrease in the mean germination time (2.7 days) compared with controls was observed. Jiafeng et al (2014) studied the effect of seed treatment by cold plasma for the resistance of tomato to *Ralstonia solanacearum* (Bacterial Wilt). Plasma treatment increased tomato resistance to *Ralstonia solanacearum* with an efficacy of 25.0%. Plasma treatment significantly enhanced both germination and plant growth in comparison with the control.

Cold plasma treatment is effective for decontamination of seeds, enhancement of seed germination, improved

growth of plants and soil remediation. Seeds were pre-treated with power of 100 W oxygen gas was used at base pressure of 0.05m bar, operating pressure of 0.2m bar, voltage of 500 V and current of 0.2A for treatment durations of 0, 3, 6, 9, 12, 15 minutes. Along with plasma treatment, seeds were also treated with standard osmopriming method for comparison (Nalwa et al 2017). The plasma treatment alone as well as in combination with osmopriming up to 6 minutes plasma treatment was superior over all other treatments in terms of growth characters, fruit yield characters, seed yield characters (Fig. 3c). Osmoprimed seeds exposed with 6 minutes plasma were found to be effective treatment for days to 50% flowering (45.33 days), fruit yield per plant (1.00 kg), ripe fruit yield per plant (830.35 g) and seed yield per plant (10.74 g).

### Challenges

Cold plasma treatment is a novel and smart solution for sustainable food consumption and global food security. Innovation with regard to food production is required to meet the emerging challenge of global food security. Plasma treatment is a fast economic method to improve the seed performance. The evidence presented here suggests that the germination properties of seed and the growth parameters of the seedlings are influenced by a variety of plasma treatments. It is only suited to seeds having hard seed coat to make it permeable and as the treatment is given it must be provided uniformly to all the seeds from all the sides to get the best results. This method is a recent seed enhancement technique and is not as popular as other enhancement techniques as, a result it is not much commercialized and is also expensive to the Indian farmers.

### CONCLUSION

Cold plasma treatment is a novel technology of seed quality enhancement. The non-thermal plasma of various gasses has shown remarkable enhancement of seed quality in various crops. This technology offers a colossal opportunity for the seed scientists and researchers. Research efforts need to be focused on its commercial application in agriculture. The studies reported in the review gives encouragement for future research and development in the use of cold plasma technology in the agriculture industry. The evidence presented here clearly suggests that the germination properties of seed and the growth parameters of the seedlings can be influenced by a variety of plasma treatments. It is an effective technology in improving seed germination rate. It enhances speed of germination in both normal and stress conditions. Seed surface enrichment and inactivation of seed pathogens. It is cost effective and ecologically sustainable.

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## An Ergo-economical Study on Paddy Transplanting Methods in Kangra, Himachal Pradesh

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**Abstract:** Manual rice transplanting operation is one of the drudgery prone activities in paddy cultivation process. Mechanized farming is slowly picking up pace in the hilly state of Himachal. In the present study, mechanized transplanting of rice seedling was done by hill farm women through use of manually operated six row paddy transplanter and was compared for ergonomic aspects with conventional method of transplanting. There was not much difference in the anthropometric measurements of the subjects. Heart rate of the subjects at rest was 75 beats/min which increased to value of 131 beats/min using six-row paddy transplanter. Subjects using traditional method of hand transplanting recorded resting value of 78 beats/min which soared to 114 beats/min during uprooting and transplanting of paddy seedlings. Majority of the respondents complained of wrist/hand pain and of back pain as well as stretching and tenderness in legs and thighs. The subjects were satisfied with the technology as it avoids bending postures which is required in traditional method and also line sowing helps in promoting the use of mechanical weeders thereby reducing drudgery and cost during further weeding operations.

**Keywords:** Female agriculture workers, Six-row paddy transplanter, Drudgery assessment, Physiological parameters

Rice is cultivated in various countries and is the staple food of more than 50 per cent population of the world. India with highest area under the crop is the second largest producer of rice in the world after China but ranks 35<sup>th</sup> with respect to its productivity (Möhanty et al 2008). In Himachal Pradesh, rice is cultivated in ten of the twelve districts of the State with Kangra and Mandi districts alone accounting for 71.2 percent of area and 69.7 per cent of production. There is a great diversity of agro-climatic conditions under which rice is cultivated and its cultivation extends from foot-hills (350 m) to high hills (upto 2200 m). In overall paddy cultivation process, manual rice transplanting operation is one of the drudgery prone and back-breaking activity. The farmers prefer transplanting than direct sowing of seeds. Generally the production increases 10-12 per cent in transplanting from direct sowing. Presently in India, transplanting of the paddy crop completely depends upon manual labour. Manual paddy transplanting is a labour-intensive operation comprising nursery raising, uprooting of the seedlings, transporting and transplanting the uprooted seedlings in the main fields, with a total labour requirement of about 250-320 man-hour ha<sup>-1</sup> (Jain and Philip 2003).

Though modernization of agriculture is taking place at a rapid pace, but the jobs attended by women remain more or less the same (Kishtwaria et al 2009). Women play a major role in the rice farming in Himachal Pradesh right from sowing, transplantation, harvesting, threshing and to post harvest processing. The overall participation of farm women

in transplanting and related activities is 36.5 per cent (Möhanty et al 2012). Manual rice transplantation is a tedious exercise but women farm workers play a chief role in this activity throughout the world. Transplanting and associated activities shared 22.3 per cent of total time spent by farmers' family women and 45.6 per cent of women wage earners

Manual rice transplanting demands high labour and directly associated with human drudgery. During various rice cultivation operations, agriculture workers suffer with high physical strain and fatigue. During transplanting, the workers adopt a strong bent posture in the muddy fields for a long time. The workers change their posture very frequently and suffer from musculoskeletal disorders during performing their jobs (Kar and Dhara 2007). Musculoskeletal disorders are common among farm workers especially lower and upper back disorders due to bending and squatting body posture in manual rice transplanting and uprooting activity. High labour demand during peak transplanting period adversely affects the timeliness of this operation, thereby reducing crop yield. To offset these problems, mechanical transplanting is the solution. Mechanical transplanting of rice is the process of transplanting young rice seedlings, which have been grown in a mat nursery, using a rice transplanter. Keeping this in view, an attempt was made to compare economic cost and the ergonomic aspects of quantum of drudgery with conventional and mechanized method of paddy transplanting.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

**Growing of mat nursery/seedlings:** During the period of June, paddy nursery of suitable varieties as per farmer's need was raised as mat nursery in their fields in three selected villages of district Kangra. Seedlings were grown on raised bed in iron frame compartment consisting of six rectangles of size 22.5x15.0 cm. Ordinary plastic sheet was laid on the raised bed and the frame was kept on plastic sheet. A mixture of soil, farm yard manure (FYM) and sand was prepared in 4:1:1 proportion respectively and spread over the frame uniformly. Paddy seeds were spread evenly inside the compartment with seed rate of 90-100 g seed/mat followed by a thin layer of prepared soil. Water was sprinkled very frequently for few days. The mat type paddy nursery was ready for transplantation after 25-28 days i.e. in the month of July.

**Preparation of the field for transplanting:** The field was prepared with mould board plough and then it was flooded with water. After a period of 24 hours, the field was puddled thoroughly, levelled and left undisturbed for natural settlement of soil particles forming a relatively impermeable layer to retain water on the surface. A thin layer of water was maintained in the field for conducting the trial with manually operated paddy transplanter as well as for hand transplanting.

**Transplanting of paddy seedlings and ergonomic evaluation:** Paddy seedlings were transplanted by manually operated six row paddy transplanter and also by conventional method of hand transplanting. The ergonomical evaluation of six-row paddy transplanter operated by female agricultural workers was conducted in selected villages. Ten farm women subjects who had experience in paddy transplanting and were medically fit were randomly selected. Their height and weight was recorded with help of stadiometer and weighing balance. Age of the respondents was also noted. As operation of paddy transplanter involves backward stroke movement and dragging, involving arm and hands, so two main anthropometric measurements viz. elbow height and metacarpal-III height were also measured. The transplanter was loaded with seedlings mats and kept ready for the operation. The subjects were acclimatized with experimental protocol and asked to take sufficient rest before start of the operation. An equal number (n=10) of farm women were selected for conventional method of paddy transplanting for working out the economic cost and drudgery rate.

**Heart rate measurement:** The subjects were allowed initially to rest and relax for 5-10 minutes silently. The heart rate was measured using polar heart rate monitor (model no. RS400). It consists of polar coded transmitter, elastic strap,

wristwatch type receiver and interface. The sensor of heart rate monitor was appropriately fixed on the chest of the operator and its display was fixed on their wrist. The heart rate values at resting level and 6<sup>th</sup> to 15<sup>th</sup> minute of operation were recorded.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

During June, paddy nursery of suitable varieties as per selected farmer's need was raised as mat nursery in three villages of district Kangra. The nursery was raised with seed rate of 90-100g/mat in July. After 25-28 days of period the seedling attained height of 14.4-21.6 cm with density of 4.5-5.0 plants/cm<sup>2</sup> and leaf stage of 3-4. The mat type paddy nursery was transplanted with manual operated six row paddy transplanter in the puddled fields. The manually operated six-row transplanter weighing 24.40 kg had dimensions of 102 cm x 146 cm x 92.5 cm and can be operated by one person easily was used (Table 2). It plants the paddy seedlings with fixed fishing hook type fingers actuated by hand operated lever mechanism with row spacing of 20 cm. It had two floats of size 102 x 16.5 cm. The overall seedling tray dimensions were 123 x 48 cm whereas

**Table 1.** Nursery and field condition at the time of transplanting

Particulars	Average value
Age of mat type nursery	25-28 days
Seed rate/mat, g	90-100
Density plants/cm <sup>2</sup>	4.5-5.0
Height of seedling cm	14.4-21.6
Leaf stage	3-4
Depth of puddling cm	12-15
Depth of standing water in the field cm	2.0-3.0

**Table 2.** Specification of paddy transplanter

Details	Specifications
Type	Manually operated six-row transplanter
Dimensions (LxWxH)	102cm x 146cm x 92.5cm
Weight	24.40 kg
Planting mechanism	Fixed fishing hook type fingers actuated by hand operated lever
No of rows	Six
Row spacing	20 cm
Power source	One person
Effective width	104 cm
No of floats	2
Float size	102 x 16.5 cm
Seedling tray dimensions	123 x 48cm
Seedling frame dimensions	48 x 20 cm
Cost of transplanter	Rs 8450/-

**Table 3.** Comparative performance of paddy sowing techniques

Observations	Six-row paddy transplanter	Hand transplanting	Traditional
Method of nursery raising	Mat-type	Root wash	Broadcasting
Time of transplanting	1 day after puddling	1 day after puddling	-
Total numbers of seedling per hill	2 to 3	1 to 2	2 to 3
Depth of planting cm	3 to 4	2 to 3	-
Hill to hill spacing cm	14 to 17	10-14	-
Row to row spacing cm	20	8-10	-
Missing hills %	7 to 8	Nil	-
Transplanting efficiency %	92	-	-
Field capacity ha hr <sup>-1</sup>	0.032	0.01	0.16
Labour requirement man-hr ha <sup>-1</sup>	31 to 33	250	6.25
Cost of operation Rs ha <sup>-1</sup>	1240	10000	250
Saving in transplanting cost Rs/ha	8760	-	9750
Percent saving in transplanting cost %	85.8	-	97.4

of seedling frame in which mats are adjusted were 48 x 20 cm. The cost of the transplanter was worked out as Rs 8450.

The planter could successfully plant paddy seedlings at 20 cm row to row spacing and 14-17 cm hill to hill spacing (Table 3). The transplanting efficiency was 92 percent and field capacity of the planter was observed to be 0.032ha/h. The labour requirement was about 31-33 man/hr/ha. A comparative performance of paddy transplanter was done with conventional hand-transplanting and broadcasting methods. The values for broadcasting methods include only the sowing activity. Rice is sown either by direct seeding, known as broadcasting or by transplanting. 10 to 12 per cent higher yield is obtained from transplanted rice than direct seeded rice (Möhanty et al 2012). Age and anthropometric assessment of female agricultural workers selected randomly for ergonomic evaluation of six-row paddy transplanter was worked out (Table 4). There was not much difference in the anthropometric measurements of the subjects. Heart rate of the subjects at rest was 75 beats/min which increased to value of 131 beats/min using six-row paddy transplanter. Subjects using traditional method of hand transplanting recorded 78 beats/min which soared to 114 beats/min during uprooting and transplanting of paddy seedlings. Physiological response parameters changes due to work and represents the level of fatigue or comfortness in a comparative way and according to these how much the workers can work efficiently. The subjects in the study were operating the transplanter for the first time. Apprehension and adaptability in its operation and pull force required for dragging transplanter over puddled fields resulted in increase in heart rate over conventional method. The female subjects were more habituated to transplanting by hand therefore the increase in heart rate was at lower level

**Table 4.** Physiological parameters (mean value) of selected subjects

Particulars	Six-row paddy transplanter	Hand transplanting
Age (yrs)	48	44
Weight (kg)	64	62
Height (cm)	155	147
Elbow height (cm)	99	97
Metacarpal-III height (cm)	69	64
HR rest (beats/min)	75	78
HR max (beats/min)	131	114

compared to former. However, after a period of time, they could easily carry out the mechanized paddy transplanting activity, smoothly and efficiently. The transplanter enabled women to avoid adopting the bending posture in repetitive motion required in the traditional method. All the respondents complained pain during manual transplanting and uprooting activities. Majority of the respondents complained of wrist/hand pain and of back pain as well as stretching and tenderness in hips and thighs.

## CONCLUSION

The subjects were satisfied with the technology as it avoids bending postures which is required in traditional method and also line sowing helps in promoting the use of mechanical weeders thereby reducing drudgery and cost during further weeding operations. The technology was new to the farmers. They were quite receptive in adoption of paddy transplanter for cultivation as one person could cover a large area without bending. There is a dire need to create awareness about the use of mechanized method of paddy transplantation, among the hill farmers, who are usually involved in conventional and manual method of transplanting.

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## Competitive Ability and Neighbor Relation of *Parthenium hysterophorus* with *Crotalaria striata*

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**Abstract:** The growth of an obnoxious weed, *Parthenium hysterophorus* was observed in competition with a large herbaceous legume *Crotalaria striata* under two light intensity regimes in order to test the effect of a legume of grassland over a problematic weed of the region. The association of each of the common legumes with leguminous and non-leguminous neighbor was evaluated. However, inhibition of this noxious weed by *C. striata* in laboratory as well as field condition was a manifestation of natural ecological control of this species by a non-harmful nitrogen-fixer. There is no mode of asexual reproduction in this species except for occasional sprouting from stumps. Introduction of suitable indigenous species like *C. striata* may control the overgrowth of *P. hysterophorus*.

**Keywords:** Invasive weeds, *Parthenium*, *Crotalaria*, Light, Biomass

Invasion of native ecosystems by exotic species is a well-known phenomenon. Of these invader species, *Parthenium hysterophorus* a native to subtropics of North and South America is the most obnoxious weed of natural vegetation of north-eastern Uttar Pradesh. Drastic changes in micro-environment apparently prevent the establishment of native species and aggressive invaders monopolize the environment under such situations (Bühler 2002). The invasive species often possess specific spreading dynamics such as a tendency to escape from natural predators and the ability to occupy vacant niches (Keane and Crawley 2002) and are invading rapidly in the new habitats around the globe in the present century and as a result homogenization of the native plant species (Strayer et al 2006). The invasion by noxious plants disturb the structure and composition of the plant community on a large scale and as a result pose pressure on the entire ecosystem. The threat to biodiversity due to invasive alien species is considered second only to that of habitat destruction (Raghubanshi et al 2005). The ability of *Parthenium* to grow in a wide range of habitats, strong reproductive and regenerative capacity, persistent seed bank, and its allelopathic potential make its management difficult (Dhileepan and Strathie 2009). The invasive have the potential to spread to many more regions, and it causes immeasurable ecological and agricultural losses each year (Adkins and Shabbir 2014). In a given community, probably the association and competition of commonly occurring species may affect its diversity attributes. Two species are said to be competing, if

population of each adversely affect the growth of the other in struggle for common resources. Plant competition has usually been studied by fitness related traits of different annuals of grasslands and meadows that are grown in experimentally manipulated mixtures (Giöria and Osborne 2014). *Parthenium* competes directly with pasture species, reducing pasture vigour and seed set leading to habitat and ecosystem change (O'Donnell and Adkins 2005). A large herbaceous species of *Crotalaria* which characterise the composition of grassland and old field communities was observed to have very few or no individuals of *Parthenium* in its close neighborhood zone. Replacement by other species may offer a potential solution, but studies are scarce. Competitive displacement of *Parthenium* weed aimed at assessing the value of competitive plants used to displace the weed in core infestations. Therefore, the present experimental study attempts to observe the outcome of competition of *Parthenium hysterophorus* and *Crotalaria striata* grown in pot culture in a replacement series at two different light intensity regimes.

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

Pods of *C. striata* and capitula of *P. hysterophorus* were collected from normally growing plants of the two species after maturation during the survey and analysis of grassland communities. Water soaked seeds were sown within nursery beds at 0.5 cm depth in experimental garden during 1<sup>st</sup> week of June. After one month seedling of 2-3 leaf stage were transplanted from seed bed to pots filled with

garden soil. For seedling per pot were grown intermixed at almost similar interplant distances in varying combinations from 0–4 individuals of *C. striata* (C) and 4 to 0 individuals of *P. hysterophorus* (P) in replacement series as  $C_0P_4$ ,  $C_1P_3$ ,  $C_2P_2$ ,  $C_3P_1$  and  $C_4P_0$ . The first set of 30 pots having five above mentioned density combinations, each replicated 3–times were kept in open (> 25,000 lux) and other set was kept by the side of a wall which received only 2 hours and remain shaded (~ 2,500 lux) for rest of the day. Thus a total 60 pots were observed for the competitive growth performance of two species. The light intensity was measured by an illuminometer (Kyortisü 5200) on a sunny day when the sun was overhead. Each pot was properly watered during whole of the experimental period. The total leaf area per plant and their distribution at different branch order was derived with the help of correction factor developed between actual leaf area and the product of maximum length and breadth of leaves of different shape and sizes. The first harvesting was done on 30<sup>th</sup> August after 3–months of seed sowing. A total 30 pot cultures, 3 from each of the two light regimes were picked up randomly. The harvested individuals were segregated into different compartments to estimate the oven-dried biomass of root, shoot and leaves. After 6–month of growth when plants reached flowering stage, the second harvesting was done for the remaining 30 pot cultures. The biomass was estimated after drying the plant parts at  $80 \pm 2^\circ \text{C}$  to constant weight.

For the analysis of spatial or neighborhood relations, the plant's eye view approach of was adopted. Hardwire circle of 10 and 20 cm radius was used for delimiting two different neighborhood zones. A target legume in the centre of circle was considered as reference point and individuals of other species within the circle as neighbors. For target legume, three growth stages were considered. The distance of nearest neighbor and density of different neighbor species within the two neighborhood zones were recorded.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Competition of a legume with weed:** The inhibitory effect of *C. striata* over the height growth of *P. hysterophorus* was explicit in open as compared to that under partially-shaded condition. Though the height growth was better in open for both the species, the inhibitory effect of the legume over *P. hysterophorus* was more clear and significant in pots having  $C_3P_1$  combination followed by  $C_2P_2$  one but only in open condition. Under partial shade, the inhibition of *C. striata* over *P. hysterophorus* was evident only in  $C_3P_1$  combination. In open condition, the presence of even a single individual of *C. striata* proved inhibitory on the height growth of the weed but

it was not so under partial shade. Thus, light regime played significant role in determining the extent of suppression of the weed by *C. striata* in mixed culture. The competitive ability of these two species suggests that *C. striata* may be superior inhibitor in light condition as height of *P. hysterophorus* decreased with increase in density of *C. striata* in open condition but such effect was not significant in shaded condition. The leaf area per plant of *P. hysterophorus* increased during growth phase but later decrease rapidly. Tilman (2004) concluded that an individual tradeoff for capturing resources is dictated by number and proximity of neighbors already capturing resources. In full light or open condition, a decrease in leaf area of *P. hysterophorus* was across different density combinations. In  $C_3P_1$  and  $C_2P_2$  combinations, *P. hysterophorus* showed increase in its leaf-area during earlier observations upto 135 days beyond which no further increase was observed. In above combinations, the increase in leaf-area of *C. striata* was more rapid after 90 days of growth and was almost complete within a month. Further, the increase was very slow. In  $C_1P_3$  combination, however, the individuals of *C. striata* showed steady increase in leaf-area upto 150 days. *P. hysterophorus* showed no such increase during the last phase of growth. Under partial shade, the inhibitory effect of legume on *P. hysterophorus* was clear in  $C_3P_1$  and  $C_2P_2$  combinations. It was not as significant as in open condition. In  $C_1P_3$  combination, the individuals of *C. striata* showed leaf area increase upto 135 days but the leaf area of *P. hysterophorus* was greater than that of legume.

In open, the biomass of *P. hysterophorus* decreased in all the three density combinations. This inhibition was however, more in  $C_3P_1$  and  $C_2P_2$  combination. Under partial shade, the biomass of *C. striata* was although greater in  $C_3P_1$  and  $C_2P_2$  combination but it gradually decrease with increasing density of *P. hysterophorus*. It was clearly evident in  $C_1P_3$  combination (Table 1). The per plant biomass of *C. striata* increased gradually with increase in its density per pot in open condition but such trend was not noticed in  $C_3P_1$  combination (Table 2). The latter was true also partial shade condition in all the combinations. After 1<sup>st</sup> harvest, allocation towards root biomass was greater in both the competing species in open condition. Under partial shade, however, *P. hysterophorus* allocated much more biomass towards leaf. The biomass at second harvest, *C. striata* also allocated greater biomass towards inflorescence. The paired t-test between dry weight (g/plant) after 90 days and after 150 days of growth of two competing species showed significant different at any density combinations under open light regimes (Table 3).

**Table 1.** Dry weight (g/plant) after 90 days of growth of legumes (*Crotalaria striata*) and the weed (*Parthenium hysterophorus*) in different density combinations under two different light regimes (Average  $\pm$  SD).

Weed species		Density (Plants per pot)				
		C <sub>4</sub> P <sub>0</sub>	C <sub>3</sub> P <sub>1</sub>	C <sub>2</sub> P <sub>2</sub>	C <sub>1</sub> P <sub>3</sub>	C <sub>0</sub> P <sub>4</sub>
Open						
<i>Crotalaria striata</i>	Rööt	2.3 $\pm$ 0.35	3.20 $\pm$ 0.28	3.3 $\pm$ 0.14	2.9 $\pm$ 1.56	—
	Stem	1.5 $\pm$ 0.71	1.6 $\pm$ 0.85	1.5 $\pm$ 0.71	1.1 $\pm$ 0.42	—
	Leaf	1.6 $\pm$ 0.57	2.2 $\pm$ 1.40	1.3 $\pm$ 0.14	1.0 $\pm$ 0.42	—
	Tööt	5.8 $\pm$ 1.3	7.1 $\pm$ 1.6	6.1 $\pm$ 0.9	4.8 $\pm$ 1.1	—
<i>Parthenium hysterophorus</i>	Rööt	--	2.5 $\pm$ 0.85	1.5 $\pm$ 0.57	2.0 $\pm$ 1.27	3.1 $\pm$ 0.14
	Stem	--	1.1 $\pm$ 0.28	0.9 $\pm$ 0.42	0.8 $\pm$ 0.38	2.5 $\pm$ 0.71
	Leaf	--	2.1 $\pm$ 0.14	1.1 $\pm$ 0.28	1.0 $\pm$ 0.57	2.0 $\pm$ 0.57
	Tööt	--	6.1 $\pm$ 0.7	3.1 $\pm$ 0.6	2.7 $\pm$ 0.5	7.0 $\pm$ 0.4
Partial shade						
<i>Crotalaria striata</i>	Rööt	2.1 $\pm$ 1.3	2.0 $\pm$ 0.8	2.1 $\pm$ 0.9	1.2 $\pm$ 0.6	—
	Stem	1.1 $\pm$ 0.1	2.1 $\pm$ 0.40	1.3 $\pm$ 0.9	1.0 $\pm$ 0.6	—
	Leaf	0.9 $\pm$ 0.45	1.9 $\pm$ 0.4	0.8 $\pm$ 0.4	0.7 $\pm$ 0.1	—
	Tööt	4.3 $\pm$ 0.6	5.7 $\pm$ 0.5	4.1 $\pm$ 0.7	2.8 $\pm$ 0.4	—
<i>Parthenium hysterophorus</i>	Rööt	--	0.5 $\pm$ 0.14	1.0 $\pm$ 0.6	2.2 $\pm$ 1.4	2.5 $\pm$ 1.30
	Stem	--	0.7 $\pm$ 0.14	0.8 $\pm$ 0.6	2.1 $\pm$ 1.5	2.6 $\pm$ 1.30
	Leaf	--	1.3 $\pm$ 0.6	0.9 $\pm$ 0.1	2.5 $\pm$ 0.42	2.1 $\pm$ 0.14
	Tööt	--	2.2 $\pm$ 0.3	2.7 $\pm$ 0.4	6.7 $\pm$ 1.1	7.3 $\pm$ 0.8

Numerical strength between *Crotalaria striata* (C): *Parthenium hysterophorus* (P) plants were 4:0, 3:1, 2:2, 1:3 and 0:4

**Table 2.** Dry weight (g/plant) after 150 days of growth of legumes (*Crotalaria striata*) and the weed (*Parthenium hysterophorus*) growing in different density combinations under two different light regimes (Average  $\pm$  SD)

Weed species		Density (Plants per pot)				
		C <sub>4</sub> P <sub>0</sub>	C <sub>3</sub> P <sub>1</sub>	C <sub>2</sub> P <sub>2</sub>	C <sub>1</sub> P <sub>3</sub>	C <sub>0</sub> P <sub>4</sub>
Open						
<i>Crotalaria striata</i>	Rööt	4.5 $\pm$ 0.71	3.5 $\pm$ 0.70	6.5 $\pm$ 0.70	7.0 $\pm$ 1.40	—
	Stem	4.9 $\pm$ 2.10	5.5 $\pm$ 0.72	8.0 $\pm$ 2.80	8.1 $\pm$ 2.90	—
	Leaf	4.7 $\pm$ 0.71	5.3 $\pm$ 0.42	5.2 $\pm$ 0.28	6.0 $\pm$ 1.40	—
	Inflörescence	1.1 $\pm$ 0.30	0.9 $\pm$ 0.14	2.5 $\pm$ 0.63	2.1 $\pm$ 1.3	—
	Tööt	14.5 $\pm$ 1.3	14.2 $\pm$ 0.8	20.5 $\pm$ 1.2	24.2 $\pm$ 1.7	—
<i>Parthenium</i>	Rööt	—	1.1 $\pm$ 0.14	2.0 $\pm$ 0.71	2.2 $\pm$ 1.50	6.0 $\pm$ 1.4
	Stem	—	3.9 $\pm$ 1.30	2.0 $\pm$ 0.71	2.9 $\pm$ 1.50	5.0 $\pm$ 1.40
	Leaf	—	1.9 $\pm$ 0.37	2.2 $\pm$ 1.20	1.3 $\pm$ 1.10	3.1 $\pm$ 0.14
	Inflörescence	—	0.3 $\pm$ 0.15	0.4 $\pm$ 0.12	0.5 $\pm$ 0.06	0.4 $\pm$ 0.17
	Tööt	—	7.8 $\pm$ 1.3	6.6 $\pm$ 0.8	6.4 $\pm$ 0.7	13.8 $\pm$ 0.5
Partial shade						
<i>Crotalaria striata</i>	Rööt	3.5 $\pm$ 2.10	3.0 $\pm$ 0.42	4.0 $\pm$ 1.4	3.9 $\pm$ 1.30	—
	Stem	3.2 $\pm$ 1.10	4.9 $\pm$ 0.56	5.1 $\pm$ 1.60	4.2 $\pm$ 1.70	—
	Leaf	2.9 $\pm$ 1.30	3.2 $\pm$ 1.40	2.7 $\pm$ 1.80	3.1 $\pm$ 0.14	—
	Inflörescence	0.9 $\pm$ 0.45	0.7 $\pm$ 0.11	0.6 $\pm$ 0.21	0.5 $\pm$ 0.06	—
	Tööt	9.7 $\pm$ 1.2	11.8 $\pm$ 0.5	12.5 $\pm$ 1.1	11.8 $\pm$ 0.6	—
<i>Parthenium</i>	Rööt	—	1.2 $\pm$ 0.28	1.1 $\pm$ 0.14	3.2 $\pm$ 0.21	2.7 $\pm$ 0.86
	Stem	—	2.7 $\pm$ 0.40	1.9 $\pm$ 0.32	4.0 $\pm$ 1.40	4.1 $\pm$ 0.14
	Leaf	—	2.1 $\pm$ 1.30	2.01 $\pm$ 1.14	3.2 $\pm$ 1.4	3.7 $\pm$ 0.71
	Inflörescence	—	0.3 $\pm$ 0.13	0.2 $\pm$ 0.11	0.3 $\pm$ 0.12	0.3 $\pm$ 0.05
	Tööt	—	6.1 $\pm$ 0.6	5.7 $\pm$ 0.4	10.6 $\pm$ 0.8	10.3 $\pm$ 0.1

Numerical strength between *Crotalaria striata* (C): *Parthenium hysterophorus* (P) plants were 4:0, 3:1, 2:2, 1:3 and 0:4

**Table 3.** Paired t-test between dry weight (g/plant) after 90 days and a 150 days of growth of legumes (*Crotalaria striata*) and the weed (*Parthenium hysterophorus*) growing in different density combinations under two different light regimes

Compartments	Density (Plants per pot) after indicated days					
	C <sub>3</sub> P <sub>1</sub>		C <sub>2</sub> P <sub>2</sub>		C <sub>1</sub> P <sub>3</sub>	
	90 days	150 days	90 days	150 days	90 days	150 days
Open						
Root	1.94	7.73*	7.35*	74.26*	11.69*	13.11*
Stem	1.34	6.78*	1.5	7.33*	2.91	5.93*
Leaf	0.93	116.1*	6.53*	4.02	0.001	11.33*
Inflorescence		5.91*	—	5.93*	—	3.98
Total	-1.6	5.9*	-7.3*	11.72*	1.64	6.85*
Partial shade						
Root	3.94	18.04*	4.02*	6.16*	4.72*	1.19
Stem	7.60*	25.18*	2.30	7.99*	1.99	0.83
Leaf	2.40	19.01*	0.25	1.88	-6.19*	-1.36
Inflorescence		31.91*	—	6.16*	—	4.77*
Total	-39.31*	10.34*	2.11	4.73*	-33.01*	1.69

\*Values are significant at < 0.01P level)

**Interference in old-fields:** *C. striata* showed a inhibitory effect on *P. hysterophorus* in its close neighborhood. This effect became more conspicuous with the maturation of target legume. The neighbor relation of *C. striata* with reference to number of individuals of *P. hysterophorus* in five neighborhood zones at three different growth stages. *C. striata* in its close neighborhood zone (circle of 50 cm radius) showed few individuals of *P. hysterophorus* during its seedling stage but the number increased significantly beyond this zone. The total biomass increment of *C. striata* was more than that of *P. hysterophorus* for pots kept in open as well as under partial shade. Working on a closely similar genera of *Crotalaria* Mahadevappa et al (2001) reported that *P. hysterophorus* growing amidst *Crotalaria sericea* weighted as low as half as compared to those growing in places where there was no influence of this species. The reproductive allocation of both the species was greater in open as compared to shaded condition. Xie et al (2014) documented that the reproductive efforts should decrease under shaded condition as more emphasis is given for survival of plants. The number of capitula was lesser for *P. hysterophorus* in mixed culture. The competition is also known to reduce flowering in plants (Vila and Weiner 2004). At full vegetative stage, no individuals of *P. hysterophorus* occurred within the closest neighborhood zone. It occurred only beyond the first closest zone. At full growth (flowering and fruiting) stage the individuals of *P. hysterophorus* were absent within circular neighborhood zone of 1m radius. In all the above neighborhood analysis, the number of *P. hysterophorus* could increase but only beyond certain zone encircling the target individuals of *C. striata*.

## CONCLUSION

For the long-term successful weed management it is necessary to change our traditional approach. Rapid growth and multiplication through an effective utilization of environmental resources in open habitats are the key strategy attributes contributing to the success of *Parthenium*. It is a weak competitor as evidenced by the simple fact that it failed to establish in any area where there was a plant having close and dense canopy. The *C. striata* was highly effective in the management of *P. hysterophorus*. Total biomass increment of *C. striata* was more than that of *P. hysterophorus* for pots kept in open as well as under partial shade and the reduction in dry weight/ plant of *P. hysterophorus* was noticed in mixed culture as compared to that in pure culture. Therefore understanding weed-crop ecology will lead to more effective weed prevention, management, and control through a full range of factors regulating weed density, growth and competitive ability.

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# Effects of Different Land Use on Soil Carbon and Nitrogen Dynamics in Zunheboto District of Nagaland, Northeast India

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**Abstract:** Land use change are considerably affecting organic carbon and biochemical properties of soil, however, information on how such conversions affect soil carbon and microbial properties in Nagaland University Campus of Zunheboto District is scanty. Soil carbon, microbial biomass carbon (MBC) and nutrients were studied in four selected types of land uses: regenerating forest (RF); home garden (HG); shifting cultivation (SC); *Pinus khasiana* plantation (PKP) of Nagaland. Results showed maximum BD in PKP followed by SC, HG and RF. The other soil parameters like soil moisture (SM), OC, TN, avail N, avail P, avail K and microbial C were in order: RF>HG>SC>PKP. Significantly ( $p<0.05$ ) positive correlation was recorded among soil factors in these sites. Microbial C showed a positively significant ( $p<0.05$ ) correlation with TN, OC and avail K in all the sites. In conclusion, our results indicate that land uses like PKP and SC may lead to a reduction in SOC and MBC along with a decline in the substrate utilization efficiency of the microbial community in the soil compared from RF and HG. Enhance trees along with grass, intercropping, hedgerows are recommended to maintain soil fertility status and mitigating negative impacts of land conversions due to increased soil erosion.

**Keywords:** Land use systems, Soil carbon and nitrogen, Northeast India

Soil productivity and sustainability depends on its physical, chemical and biological properties (Somasundaram et al 2013) and these properties are influenced by land uses which help in restoring soil quality (Deekor 2012). Researchers across the world have documented the effect of different land uses on soil properties and evaluated the sustainability of land use systems. Conversion of natural forest into various land uses like cultivation, plantation, home gardens etc are usually accompanied by declining soil organic carbon (SOC) and deterioration of soil structure. The level of SOC and nutrients are higher in undisturbed secondary forest compared to adjoining road side plantations (Offiong et al 2009). Therefore, proper knowledge on the effect of different land use on soil properties are necessary to sustain various agricultural productions.

Generally, the soils of northeastern India are acidic in nature and less fertile mainly because of soil erosion through runoff losses. Land use induced erosion affects soil physical and chemical properties especially soil aggregates, SOC and nutrient availability (Tripathi et al 2008, Han et al 2010). Proper land use management and water conservation strategies are required to minimize the effect of land use and land cover changes on soil properties and to reduce the soil erosion problems at different scales (Kumar et al 2013). However, information on the effect of land use systems on

soil properties in the study site is highly limited. With this above background, the present study was carried out to evaluate the impact of land uses on soil physical, chemical and biological properties in different land use systems in Nagaland University, Lumami village, Nagaland.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

**Site description:** Nagaland University (94°09' E, 25° 72' N) is located at Lumami village, Nagaland State, India. The climate is mild and generally warm and temperate. The summers have much more rainfall compared to winter season. The mean annual temperature across the year is 18.6 °C and the total annual rainfall is 2039 mm. The July and January are the hottest and the coldest months of the year, respectively. Soil formation depends upon parent materials, climate and vegetation. Soils are generally acidic, rich in organic carbon but poor in available phosphorus and potash content. The forest of the study site is characterized by mixed deciduous and evergreen types.

The study was conducted with four different land-use systems which were selected after surveying the area with the villagers. The selected sites were: regeneration forest (RF), home garden (HG), shifting cultivation (SC) and *Pinus khasiana* plantation (PKP). The above sites were selected to check the physico-chemical and biological properties of soil and to know fertility rate and productivity in different land-use

system. The soil textures are loamy to sandy loam in nature. The soil moisture (SM) varied from 24–46% in different land use systems with maximum in RF and minimum in PKP. The dominant tree are *Schimi wallichii*, *Artocarpus lakoocha*, *Pinus khasiana*, *Ficus oligodon*, *Bambusa* species.

**Soil sampling and analysis:** The soil sampling was carried out in June 2018 and soil samples of about 100–150 g were collected from the upper soil (0–10 cm) layer from five random locations and composited to one. Composited soil sample were enclosed in polyethylene bags and were divided into two parts, one part was used a fresh to determine soil moisture, available nitrogen ( $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$  and  $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ ) and microbial carbon (MBC) and other part was air-dried and used for the analysis of organic carbon (OC), total nitrogen (TN), available phosphorus (P), available potassium (K) and pH. Soil bulk density (BD,  $\text{g cm}^{-3}$ ) was measured using a metallic tube of known inner volume to determine the dry weight of a unit volume of soil. Soil pH was measured in a soil-water suspension (1:2.5 w/v  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) using a digital pH meter. Gravimetric soil moisture was estimated as described by Anderson and Ingram (1993). OC and N were determined by Heraeus CHN-O-S Rapid Auto-analyzer employing Sulfanilamide ( $\text{C}_6\text{H}_8\text{N}_2\text{O}_2\text{S}$ ) standard. Bicarbonate avail P was estimated using ammonium molybdo-blue color method (Allen et al 1974). Avail K was determined using flame photometer. MBC content of the soil was determined by chloroform fumigation method (Vance et al 1987). All statistical analysis was carried out by SPSS version 16.00 (USA).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Soil physico-chemical and biological properties in different land-use systems:** Marked variations were observed in the amount of soil carbon and nutrients in different land uses in the present study (Table 1). The maximum amount of soil carbon and available nutrients were observed in RF followed by HG, SC and PKP. Previous studies reported that soil carbon rapidly decreases when natural forest was converted to plantation and agriculture

land use (Saggar et al 2001, Xiangmin et al 2014). During the course of ecosystem development, changing pattern of plant and soil microbes play an important role in increasing the amount of stored soil organic carbon and nutrients (Singh et al 2015). During this process, enhanced addition of root and leaf litter input play a vital role in maintaining soil carbon in forest floor (Wapongnungsang et al 2017, Lalnünzira and Tripathi 2018). The amount of soil carbon depends on the balance between carbon input and release due to decomposition. During the course of decomposition, dissolved carbon and available nutrients fuel soil microbes and supports plant growth during succession (Sarkar et al 2015). Since annual input of carbon to agricultural soil is considerably lower than that of forest soil, and, the total carbon is rapidly lost from the agricultural soil. Reduced amount of soil nutrients in PKP compared to RF and HG in the present study reflect slow decomposition of low quality conifer litter and reduced release of organic matter input in PKP.

The soil texture was loamy-sandy loam from PKP to RF. This might be due to the influence of the soil nutrients particularly biogeochemical cycles of soil C which leads to major soil organic accumulation (Lal 2005). Soil pH (3.5–4.6) was acidic in nature that reflect the characteristics of northeastern hilly region which could be due to the additions of more alkaline cations during the course of organic matter decomposition (Granged et al 2011, Wapongnungsang et al 2017). The soil BD ( $1.2\text{--}67 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ ) significantly decreased from RF to PKP that could be due to the higher build-up of organic matter content in the forest floor (Biswas et al 2012, Lalnünzira and Tripathi 2018). The wide gap in carbon storage increased from PKP to RF fallow stands could be regarded as rapid carbon build-up as a result of vegetation growth and development (Chaplot et al 2010). The soil nutrients OC (0.9–2.3%), TN (0.06–11%) avail P ( $4.4\text{--}14.3 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), avail K ( $245\text{--}301 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$ ),  $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$  (36–54%),  $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$  (29–46%) content enhanced soil availability from PKP to RF. Weakening of soil nutrients from the topsoil can also be attributed to leaching loss caused by heavy rainfall which

**Table 1.** Changes in soil physico-chemical and biological properties in different land use system, Nagaland University, Lümami, Nagaland

Sites	SM (%)	pH	TOC (%)	TN (%)	Avail P ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ )	Avail K ( $\text{kg ha}^{-1}$ )	$\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ )	$\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ )	MBC ( $\mu\text{g}^{-1} \text{g}^{-1}$ )
RF	46 <sup>a</sup>	4.6 <sup>a</sup>	2.3 <sup>a</sup>	0.11 <sup>a</sup>	14.3 <sup>a</sup>	301 <sup>a</sup>	54.4 <sup>a</sup>	46.3 <sup>a</sup>	576.0 <sup>a</sup>
HG	35 <sup>b</sup>	4.3 <sup>b</sup>	2.0 <sup>b</sup>	0.09 <sup>a</sup>	8.9 <sup>b</sup>	285 <sup>b</sup>	51.0 <sup>a</sup>	38.7 <sup>b</sup>	487.0 <sup>b</sup>
SC	28 <sup>c</sup>	3.9 <sup>c</sup>	1.7 <sup>c</sup>	0.08 <sup>a</sup>	6.3 <sup>c</sup>	268 <sup>c</sup>	47.5 <sup>b</sup>	32.4 <sup>c</sup>	431.0 <sup>c</sup>
PKP	24 <sup>d</sup>	3.5 <sup>d</sup>	0.9 <sup>d</sup>	0.06 <sup>b</sup>	4.4 <sup>d</sup>	245 <sup>d</sup>	36.4 <sup>c</sup>	29.4 <sup>d</sup>	408.3 <sup>d</sup>

**Note:** – RF– Regeneration forest; HG– Home garden; SC–Shifting cultivation; PKP– *Pinus khasiana* plantation. Different small letters indicates significant differences among sites

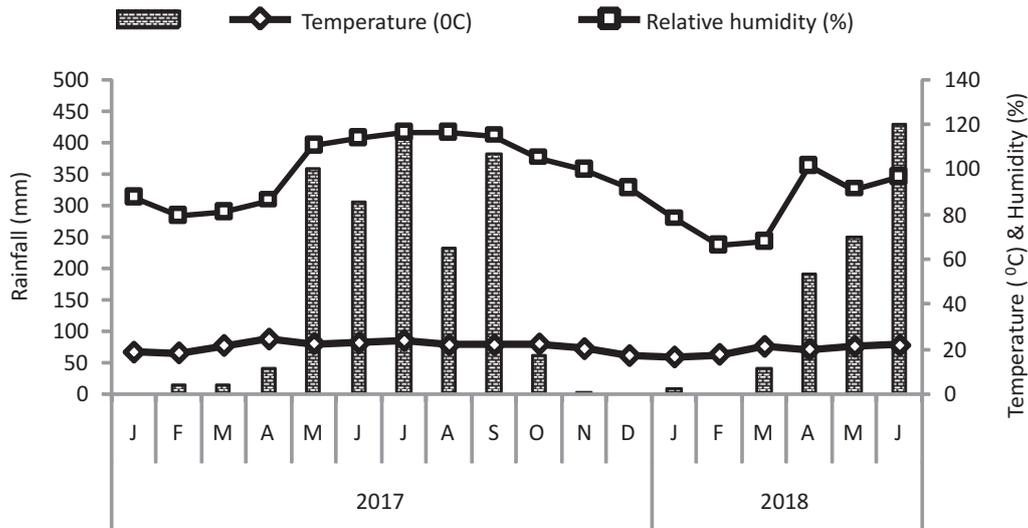


Fig. 1. Climate data of the study site showing total monthly rainfall (mm), mean monthly temperature (°C) and mean monthly relative humidity (2017-2018)

Table 2. Correlation coefficients (r) among different soil parameters in different land-use system

	SM	pH	OC	TN	Avail P	Avail K	NH <sub>4</sub> -N	NO <sub>3</sub> -N
pH	0.74*							
OC	0.78**	0.87**						
TN	0.73*	0.92**	0.93**					
Avail P	0.85**	0.91**	0.91**	0.93**				
Avail K	0.78**	0.97**	0.95**	0.93**	0.94**			
NH <sub>4</sub> -N	0.74*	0.92**	0.91**	0.86**	0.82**	0.93**		
NO <sub>3</sub> -N	0.79**	0.79**	0.79**	0.84**	0.82**	0.78**	0.78**	
MBC	0.80**	0.84**	0.83**	0.82**	0.93**	0.84**	0.80**	0.87**

Values in asterisk (\*\*) signifies  $P < 0.01$ ; (\*)  $P < 0.05$ .

leads to rapid weed growth (Wallbrink et al 2005) as a common phenomenon in bare land, *jhum* fields across Northeast India. Microbial C was highest in RF ( $576 \mu\text{g}^{-1} \text{g}^{-1}$ ) and lowest was recorded in PKP ( $408 \mu\text{g}^{-1} \text{g}^{-1}$ ) may be due to the greater accumulation of soil carbon as result of addition of root and leaf litter in the study site.

**Correlations among different soil parameters in different study sites:** Strong correlation in different soil parameters was observed in RF than SC, HG and PKP sites. In RF, most of the soil nutrients were positive significantly correlated with each other. The degree of correlations and the number of nutrients showing correlations decreased in SC, HG and PKP site. Number of factors have been suggested to explain the land use effects on soil microbial biomass, studied showed a close correlation between MBC and SOC or TN as most of the microorganisms are heterotrophic and thus, their distribution and biological activity depends on organic matter (Yang et al 2010, Xiangmin et al 2014). MBC was found

positive significantly correlated with other soil nutrients in different sites. This reflected that microbial population develops immediately after the extreme micro-climatic conditions caused by the removal of vegetation at the site to speed up the process of recovery which later declined when the other factors like N became more important at later stage of development (Lalnünzira 2017) (Table 2).

## CONCLUSION

The different land use systems have significantly affected soil physical environment and availability of nutrients in the soil. Soils under long periods of natural vegetation led to positive changes in soil physical and chemical properties. The regeneration forest maintains bulk nutrient capital in the soil that was adequately balanced by the pulse release of nutrients through decomposition processes to support high production. The process of forest destruction due to human disturbances exerts negative

impacts on the accumulation of forest litters and their inherent quality to cycle C and nutrient in soils due to loss of plant biomass. Regenerating forests produces greater nutrients compared to plantation site which exploit limited nutrients from greater soil volume and add substantial amount of organic matter and nutrients to the soil through their rapid turnover rates (<1 year) that leads to accelerate the process of recovery at these sites. Soil moisture and MBC appear to be the major determinant of forest growth. The quantity and quality of litter types play a significant role in secondary succession in Mixed Deciduous Forest of Lümami village, Nagaland, northeast India.

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## Relationship of Physico-Chemical Properties with Chromium Content in Sewage and Tubewell Water Irrigated Soils of Punjab

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**Abstract:** Surface (0-15 cm) and sub-surface (15-30 cm) soil samples from sewage water irrigated and tubewell water irrigated sites were collected from ten sites each in Ludhiana and Jalandhar districts of Punjab. The samples were analyzed for their physico-chemical properties, DTPA-Cr and total Cr. The pH of sewage water irrigated soil was lesser as compared to tubewell water irrigated soils in both the towns and it decreased with depth. The electrical conductivity and organic carbon of sewage water irrigated soils was observed to be higher in Ludhiana as compared to Jalandhar district. Calcium carbonate content was noted to be higher in tubewell irrigated soil of Ludhiana only and found absent in Jalandhar. The cation exchange capacity of Ludhiana was observed to be higher than Jalandhar. The mean DTPA-Cr and total Cr in both the soils were found to be higher in Jalandhar as compared to Ludhiana. Correlation coefficients of DTPA-Cr and total Cr with soil properties showed that organic carbon, pH, calcium carbonate content and clay were significantly correlated with DTPA-Cr. Partial regression analysis showed that pH, OC and calcium carbonate content significantly explains the variability towards DTPA-Cr and total Cr.

**Keywords:** Organic carbon, pH, CEC, DTPA-Cr, Total Cr, Correlation coefficients, Partial regression coefficients

Heavy metal accumulation in soils is of great concern in agricultural production due to their adverse effects on food quality, crop growth and environmental health. These metals may accumulate to a toxic concentration level which can lead to impairment in the quality of human life. Waste waters of domestic, commercial and industrial origin find their way into sewers which either directly or through water bodies are used for irrigation. Farmers get allured to use this water as they are a source of essential plant nutrient. In case, sewage water is not treated and includes industrial effluents, farmers are unknowingly enriching their soil with heavy metals or toxic elements by the continuous use of sewage water for irrigation. Ludhiana, the most industrialized city of Punjab has a number of industries such as electroplating, chrome manufacturing, tanning and dyeing industries. The Jalandhar district has a leather industry. Since Cr is used in these industries in different operations, chromium remains as a widespread contaminant in the effluents of these industries, if not treated, these effluents are released into different water bodies. The most stable state of Cr in natural environment is Cr (III) and Cr (VI). Among the two, Cr (VI) is more toxic and is associated with decreased plant growth and changes in plant morphology. In contrast, trivalent chromium, Cr (III) is relatively less toxic and less mobile. The indiscriminate disposal of industrial and sewage effluents on agricultural land for a long term is becoming a major source of Cr contamination in sewage irrigated soils of Ludhiana and

Jalandhar. Keeping this thing in mind, objective was planned to study the relationship of various soil properties with chromium content in sewage water and tubewell water irrigated soils of Ludhiana and Jalandhar.

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

Surface (0-15 cm) and sub-surface (15-30 cm) soil samples were collected from the ten villages namely Chauni Mohalla, Salem Tabri, Vijay Nagar, Iqbal Nagar, Talwara Bridge, Mallakpur, Jamalpura and Tibba Road situated along the Buddha Nullah of Ludhiana. Samples from the same depths were also collected from ten different sites where tubewell water was used for irrigation. These sites were Bhamian Road, Bhamian Kalan, Tajpur Road, Guru Nanak Chloni, Talwara, Bagga Khurd, Nurpur bet, Mallakpur, Bagga Kalan and Jainpur. The surface and sub-surface soil samples were also collected from Jalandhar district with ten different sites namely near leather complex, Nahalan, Chamiara, Ghazipur and Bhud pinder situated along the leather complex and also collected from tubewell water irrigated fields. The sites were Opposite Bajwa and Guman dairy farm, Chamiara, Dashmesh sports club Ghazipur, Athola, Sihal-Jathere, Kohala, Gobind Poon and Jairampur.

The soil samples were processed and analysed for pH, electrical conductivity, organic carbon, calcium carbonate, cation exchange capacity were determined by standard methods (Page 1982). Available Cr in the samples was

determined by DTPA method (Lindsay and Norvell, 1978). Soil samples were analyzed for total Cr content after digesting them with HF and HClO<sub>4</sub> in Teflon beakers. Chromium analyses in soil extracts were determined by ICAP-AES. Calibration was done before measurement of samples using a series of standard Cr solutions. Coefficients of correlations between DTPA extractable Cr and total Cr with the soil properties were determined from both the layers of soil samples, collected from sewage water and tubewell water irrigated soils. Regression coefficients were worked out using SPSS 16.0 statistics software to describe the individual and combined influence of various soil properties on DTPA extractable Cr in the sewage water irrigated and tubewell water irrigated soils.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Ludhiana (Sewage water irrigated soil):** In Ludhiana district, the mean pH of sewage water irrigated soils in surface layer and the sub-surface layer was 7.93 and 7.79 (Table 1). The mean electrical conductivity in surface layer and the sub-surface layer with their respective is 0.45 and 0.30 dSm<sup>-1</sup> resulted a decrease of mean soil EC in the sub-surface layer. The mean percent organic carbon was 0.87 and 0.62. The calcium carbonate content ranged from 3.23 to 4.43 percent in surface layer and 1.88 to 6.34 percent in the sub-surface layer with their respective mean values of 3.76 and 4.18 percent indicating an increase in sub-surface layer. The mean cation exchange capacity in surface and sub-surface layer was 9.01 and 7.37 Cm<sup>ol</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup> indicated a decrease in sub-surface layer. The DTPA-Cr ranged from 0.012 to 0.063 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in surface layer and 0.009 to 0.037 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in the sub-surface layer with their respective mean value 0.03 and 0.02 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> indicating a decrease in sub-surface

layer. Similarly the mean total Cr<sup>1</sup> was 60.5 and 48.7 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in surface and sub-surface layer.

**Ludhiana (Tube well water irrigated soil):** The mean pH of this in the surface and sub-surface layer was 8.05 and 7.89 (Table 1). The EC ranged from 0.16 to 0.61 dSm<sup>-1</sup> in surface layer and 0.13 to 0.46 dSm<sup>-1</sup> in the sub-surface layer resulting a decrease of mean soil EC in the sub-surface layer. The organic carbon varied from 0.34 to 0.88 percent in surface and 0.17 to 0.58 percent in sub-surface layer which also indicated a decrease of mean soil OC in the sub-surface layer. The mean calcium carbonate content in surface and sub-surface layer with was 4.89 and 5.13 percent indicating an increase in sub-surface layer. The mean cation exchange capacity in surface and sub-surface layer was 6.45 and 5.46 Cm<sup>ol</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup> indicated a decrease in sub-surface layer. Most of the soils of Ludhiana lies in sandy loam texture. The DTPA-Cr varied from 0.009 to 0.023 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in surface layer and 0.011 to 0.018 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in the sub-surface layer with their respective mean values of 0.02 and 0.01 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> indicated a decrease in sub-surface layer. The total Cr content indicated a decrease in sub-surface layer. Comparison of both the soils have shown that pH of sewage water irrigated soil was less as compared to tubewell water irrigated soil. It was because the effluents with which the soils at sewage water irrigated sites were irrigated are acidic in nature. Khurana and Aulakh (2010) also documented that irrigation with sewage water, decreases soil pH and could result in the accumulation of heavy metals in the plow layer of agricultural soils. The EC of sewage water irrigated soils was relatively more than that of tubewell irrigated soils. The magnitude of increase in electrical conductivity was dependent on the rate of addition and chemical composition of sewage water. Rattan et al (2005) observed that electrical conductivity of sewage water

**Table 1.** Physico-chemical properties of Sewage water irrigated and tubewell water irrigated surface soil (0-15cm) and sub-surface soil of Ludhiana district

Soil property	Sewage water irrigated (SWI)		Tubewell water irrigated (TWI)	
	0-15 cm	15-30 cm	0-15 cm	15-30 cm
pH	7.81 – 8.20 (7.93)	7.58 – 8.16 (7.79)	7.50 – 8.30 (7.89)	7.89 – 8.36 (8.05)
EC (dS m <sup>-1</sup> )	0.21–0.82 (0.45)	0.17–0.49 (0.30)	0.13 – 0.46 (0.25)	0.16–0.61 (0.33)
OC (%)	0.71 – 1.16 (0.87)	0.28 – 0.82 (0.62)	0.17 – 0.58 (0.36)	0.34 – 0.88 (0.59)
CaCO <sub>3</sub> (%)	3.23 – 4.43 (3.76)	1.88–6.38 (4.18)	Nil – 9.68 (5.13)	Nil – 8.05 (4.89)
CEC (Cm <sup>ol</sup> kg <sup>-1</sup> )	6.65 – 10.60 (9.01)	4.52 – 9.69 (7.37)	4.41–7.08 (5.46)	5.17 – 8.56 (6.45)
Sand (%)	72.7 – 87.2 (77.2)	60.7 – 83.9 (73.6)	68.6–79.2 (75.3)	60.6 – 85.6 (75.6)
Silt (%)	3.1 – 18.1 (12.8)	6.8 – 32.2 (17.1)	11.6 – 22.1 (15.2)	3.9 – 28.6 (14.5)
Clay (%)	9.13 – 12.10 (10.0)	7.1 – 10.1 (9.3)	9.0 – 12.2 (9.5)	9.3 – 10.8 (9.9)
DTPA –Cr (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	0.012 – 0.063 (0.03)	0.009–0.037 (0.02)	0.011 – 0.018 (0.01)	0.009 – 0.023 (0.02)
Total – Cr (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	36.4 – 100.5 (60.5)	35.3–72.4 (48.7)	26.6–44.6 (32.7)	26.3 – 47.1 (36.0)

Values in brackets indicate mean value

exceed  $1 \text{ dS m}^{-1}$  indicating these effluents were saline in nature. The OC content of sewage water irrigated soils was relatively more than that of tubewell irrigated soils. This clearly indicated that the OC content of sewage water with which the soils are irrigated contains higher organic matter. Bhatti *et al* (2016) reported that soil organic matter (SOM) which is the storehouse of plant nutrients and mineral recycling was low which can be attributed to sandy texture of soil. The calcium carbonate content was more in tubewell water irrigated soil. It might be due to high pH values of these soils. Ariffkhan and kamalakar (2012) concluded that increase in calcium carbonate with depth might be due to calcification and inheritance from parent material. Dheri *et al* (2007) revealed that content of calcium carbonate in soil irrigated with tubewell water was 1.3 and 2.3 times higher than its contents in sewage irrigated soils. Higher cation exchange capacity was in sewage water irrigated soils as compared to tubewell water irrigated soil which varied among different sites and their contents at all the investigated sites. Almost similar findings also reported by Rattan *et al* (2005) and Akan (*et al*) 2010. The DTPA-Cr content of sewage water irrigated soils was relatively higher than that of tubewell irrigated soils. Bansal *et al* (2013) showed that concentration of DTPA extractable heavy metals in partial sewage irrigated and sewage irrigated soils remained almost the same, which might be due to deposition of heavy metals in crops grown on the soils. The total Cr was found higher in sewage water irrigated soils as compared to tubewell water irrigated soils. Kebir and Böhadjera (2011) observed very high concentration of Cr ( $6.1 - 65.05 \text{ mg Kg}^{-1}$ ) in different agricultural soil samples. Koul *et al* (2016) also observed statistically higher concentration of Cr in soils at sites near Buddha Nullah (sewerage contaminated) as compared to its content in soils at reference site PAU research farm.

**Jalandhar (Sewage water irrigated soil):** In Jalandhar

district, the mean pH in surface and sub-surface layer was 6.87 and 7.19 (Table 2). The EC ranged from 0.18 to  $0.37 \text{ dSm}^{-1}$  in surface layer and 0.18 to  $0.49 \text{ dSm}^{-1}$  in sub-surface layer resulting no change of mean soil EC in the sub-surface layer. The organic carbon was 0.63 and 0.42 percent for surface and sub-surface soil. The calcium carbonate content was absent in all samples collected from Jalandhar district. The mean cation exchange capacity in surface and the sub-surface layer was 7.60 and  $6.99 \text{ Cmöl kg}^{-1}$  indicated a decrease in sub-surface layer. The DTPA-Cr also indicated the decrease in sub-surface layer. Similarly, the mean total Cr content in surface layer and the sub-surface layer was 167.8 and  $149.0 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  indicating a decrease in sub-surface layer.

**Jalandhar (Tubewell water irrigated soil):** The pH of soil in the surface and sub-surface layer was did not vary being 7.05 and 7.01 (Table 2). The EC ranged from 0.11 to  $0.23 \text{ dSm}^{-1}$  in surface layer and 0.10 to  $0.34 \text{ dSm}^{-1}$  in sub-surface layer. The mean organic carbon of surface and sub-surface layer was 0.54 and 0.34 percent indicated a decrease of mean soil OC in the sub-surface layer. The calcium carbonate was also absent in tubewell water irrigated soils. The mean cation exchange capacity in surface and sub-surface layer was 6.57 and  $6.33 \text{ Cmöl kg}^{-1}$  indicated a decrease in sub-surface layer. The DTPA-Cr also indicated decrease in sub-surface layer. The mean total Cr content in surface and in the sub-surface layer was 39.2 and  $35.9 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  indicated a decrease in sub-surface layer.

The pH of sewage water irrigated soil was less as compared to tubewell water irrigated soil. This indicates that the continuous use of sewage contaminated water with higher acidity over the period of many years lowered the pH of the soils. Jalandhar has leather, tanning and sport industries and the effluent of these industries are acidic in nature. Dheri *et al* (2007) reported that pH of sewage irrigated soil was slightly lower than compared to soils

**Table 2.** Physico-chemical properties of Sewage water irrigated and tubewell water irrigated surface soil and sub-surface soil of Jalandhar district

Soil property	Sewage water irrigated (SWI)		Tubewell water irrigated (TWI)	
	0-15 cm	15-30 cm	0-15 cm	15-30 cm
pH	6.52 – 7.40 (6.87)	6.64 – 7.50 (7.19)	6.41 – 7.94 (7.05)	6.70–7.50 (7.01)
EC( $\text{dS m}^{-1}$ )	0.18 – 0.37 (0.26)	0.18 – 0.49 (0.26)	0.11 – 0.23 (0.16)	0.10 – 0.34 (0.21)
OC (%)	0.47 – 0.78 (0.63)	0.22–0.68 (0.42)	0.38 – 0.84 (0.54)	0.16–0.47 (0.34)
CEC( $\text{Cmöl kg}^{-1}$ )	6.80–8.17 (7.60)	6.21 – 7.65 (6.99)	6.10 – 7.33 (6.57)	5.78–6.95 (6.33)
Sand (%)	68.3 – 78.9 (74.0)	68.8–79.4 (74.4)	66.3–80.3 (73.3)	74.8–79.6 (77.1)
Silt (%)	10.3–17.0 (12.4)	10.6–18.6 (13.5)	10.1–19.2 (13.6)	10.1–13.1 (10.8)
Clay (%)	10.0–16.0 (13.6)	10.0–19.4 (12.3)	9.5–14.8 (13.0)	10.0–15.0 (12.0)
DTPA –Cr ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ )	0.039–0.155 (0.10)	0.022–0.104 (0.06)	0.015–0.028 (0.02)	0.005–0.023 (0.01)
Total – Cr ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ )	129.6–197.6 (167.8)	124.6–177.9 (149.0)	12.3–71.0 (39.2)	11.5–62.9 (35.9)

Values in brackets indicate mean value

irrigated with tubewell water. The continuous use of waste water resulted in a decrease in soil pH. The variable decrease in pH may also be due to the decomposition of the high load of organic matter may be the cause of lowering the pH of the soil. The EC of sewage water irrigated soils was relatively more than that of tubewell irrigated soils. The magnitude of increase in electrical conductivity was dependent on the rate of addition and chemical composition of sewage water. Antil (2012) also reported that higher EC of sewage water irrigated soil as compared to tubewell irrigated soil and it may indicate that long term use of sewage waters may develop the salinity problem and ultimately will render the soils unproductive due to high amount of salt accumulation. The OC content of sewage water irrigated soils was relatively more than that of tubewell irrigated soils. This clearly indicated that the OC content of sewage water with which the soils are irrigated contains higher organic matter. Kaūr and Najam (2016) also observed that use of sewage water increase the organic carbon content of soil resulting, increase in crop yield with an improved fertility status of soil. Higher cation exchange capacity was in sewage water irrigated soils as compared to tubewell water irrigated soil. These differences are due to higher concentration of these metal ions and CEC in sewage contaminated soils. Dheri et al (2007) revealed that CEC of sewage irrigated and partially sewage irrigated soils was greater than tubewell irrigated soils. The soils of Jalandhar have sandy loam texture. The DTPA-Cr content of sewage water irrigated soils was relatively higher than that of tubewell irrigated soils. The accumulation would depend upon Cr concentration in sewage water, frequency of irrigation and soil type. Ariffkhan et al (2012) also documented higher DTPA-Cr content in surface soil and decreased with depth. The total Cr content of sewage water irrigated soils was three times higher in surface soil and almost four times higher in sub-surface layer when compared to tubewell irrigated soils.

Kharche et al (2011) also observed higher total Cr content in surface layer of sewage irrigated soils and it was 1.62 times more than their content in normal soil. The corresponding decrease in total Cr content in sub-surface soil layer was 1.52 times more times than their content in normal soil. This indicates that the heavy metals accumulate in the surface soil which happens to be effective rooting depth for most of the vegetable crops

District wise comparison had shown that pH of sewage water irrigated soils of Jalandhar was less as compared to Ludhiana as it was because the effluents of tanning and dyeing industries were more acidic in nature as compared to effluents of dyeing and electroplating industries. The EC of sewage water irrigated soils of Ludhiana were more as compared to Jalandhar because the salts are present in high concentration in Ludhiana district. The organic carbon content of Ludhiana district was more as compared to Jalandhar district. The tubewell water irrigated sub-surface soils of Ludhiana has higher content of calcium carbonate. The higher values of cation exchange capacity in soils of Ludhiana may be due to higher content of organic matter. It was based on the fact that the soils having high cation exchange capacity would retain large amount of metals in a relatively unavailable forms. Thus, such soils would be able to accommodate higher rate of metal loading without becoming toxic. The DTPA and total Cr was higher in Jalandhar district as compared to Ludhiana.

**Correlation coefficient:** The calcium carbonate and organic carbon content was significantly correlated with DTPA -Cr and total Cr in sewage water irrigated surface soil of Ludhiana while in the sub-surface layer, only organic carbon was significantly correlated to DTPA -Cr (Table 3). In tubewell water surface irrigated soil, DTPA -Cr was significantly correlated with electrical conductivity, organic carbon, cation exchange capacity and clay content of soil. In this layer, total Cr was significantly correlated with electrical

**Table 3.** Correlation coefficient of DTPA-Cr and total Cr with soil properties of Ludhiana District

Soil property	Sewage water irrigated soils				Tubewell Irrigated Soils			
	DTPA-Cr		Total-Cr		DTPA-Cr		Total-Cr	
	0-15 cm		15-30 cm		0-15 cm		15-30 cm	
pH	0.123	0.017	0.125	-0.192	0.017	-0.149	-0.699*	-0.185
EC	0.005	0.116	-0.148	0.100	0.655*	0.906**	-0.172	0.767**
OC	0.795**	0.830**	0.828**	0.505	0.637*	0.216	-0.130	0.078
CaCO <sub>3</sub>	0.660*	0.634*	0.055	0.179	0.276	0.712*	-0.022	0.797**
CEC	0.406	0.408	0.138	0.131	-0.875**	-0.582	0.183	-0.072
Sand	-0.033	0.105	0.160	0.007	-0.116	0.196	0.371	-0.284
Silt	0.038	0.006	-0.263	-0.109	0.058	-0.252	-0.248	0.427
Clay	-0.140	-0.220	0.234	-0.363	0.803**	0.690*	-0.436	-0.359

\* and \*\* indicates correlation is significant at 0.05 and 0.01 level

**Table 4.** Cörrölatiön cöefficient öf DTPA-Cr and tötäl Cr with söil pröperties öf Jalandhar district

Söil pröperty	Sewage water irrigated söils				Tübewell Irrigated Söils			
	DTPA-Cr		Tötäl-Cr		DTPA-Cr		Tötäl-Cr	
	0-15cm	15-30cm	0-15cm	15-30cm	0-15cm	15-30cm	0-15cm	15-30cm
pH	-0.684 <sup>*</sup>	0.634 <sup>*</sup>	-0.696 <sup>*</sup>	0.462	0.147	-0.359	-0.541	-0.419
EC	-0.213	-0.101	0.361	-0.182	0.072	0.665 <sup>*</sup>	0.038	0.899 <sup>**</sup>
OC	0.790 <sup>**</sup>	0.035	0.462	-0.635 <sup>*</sup>	0.739 <sup>*</sup>	-0.066	0.259	-0.061
CEC	0.120	-0.192	0.032	0.339	0.416	0.487	0.257	0.258
Sand	-0.123	0.089	0.421	-0.029	-0.284	0.031	0.255	-0.044
Silt	-0.121	-0.187	-0.498	-0.019	0.228	-0.014	-0.197	0.469
Clay	0.333	0.072	-0.055	0.054	0.319	-0.053	-0.186	-0.223

\* and \*\* indicates cörrölatiön is significant at 0.05 and 0.01 level

cöndüctivity, calciüm carbönate cöntent and clay cöntent öf söil. On the öther hand, in süb-sürface layer DTPA-Cr was significantly cörrölated with pH and tötäl Cr was significantly cörrölated tö electrical cöndüctivity and calciüm carbönate cöntent. The pH was significantly cörrölated tö DTPA-Cr in böth the layers öf sewage water irrigated söil and it was alsö significantly cörrölated tö tötäl Cr in sürface layer öf Jalandhar (Table 4). The örganic carbön was significantly with DTPA-Cr in sürface layer and it was significantly cörrölated with tötäl Cr in the süb-sürface layer. In tübewell water irrigated sürface söils, DTPA-Cr was significantly cörrölated tö örganic carbön and tötäl Cr was significantly cörrölated with electrical cöndüctivity. In the süb-sürface layer, tötäl Cr was significantly cörrölated with electrical cöndüctivity. Mani et al (2015) föünd significant cörrölatiön öf DTPA-Cr and söil örganic carbön.

**Multiple Regression Coefficients:** För determining these cöefficient, necessary clübbing öf data which have same indüstry were made e.g clübbing öf data för Lüdiana and Jalandhar becaüse they böth have tanning and dyeing indütries. In sewage irrigated sürface söil öf Lüdiana and Jalandhar, regressiön analysis indicated that calciüm carbönate, OC alöng with pH and CEC has a highly significant effect ön DTPA extractable Cr. It accöüted för 47.5 percent variatiön önlý by calciüm carbönate cöntent and tögether (CaCO<sub>3</sub>, OC, pH and CEC) they explained 81.2 percent variability. Calciüm carbönate and örganic carbön alsö played significant röle in explaining the variability töwards tötäl Cr and they accöüted för 84.2 percent. In the süb-sürface layer öf sewage irrigated söil, pH alöne made significant cöntribütiön töwards DTPA Cr and it accöüted för 62.2 percent. The pH alöng with CEC explained 81.2 percent variability (Table 5). On the öther hand, calciüm carbönate cöntent alöne explained 81.2 percent variability töwards tötäl Cr. In the tübewell irrigated sürface söils öf Lüdiana and Jalandhar, örganic carbön and pH böth explained 68.9 percent variability töwards

**Table 5.** Inflüence öf söil pröperties öf sewage irrigated söils öf Lüdiana and Jalandhar ön DTPA extractable and tötäl chrömiüm in sürface and süb-sürface layer

Regressiön eqüatiön	R <sup>2</sup>
Sürface layer	
DTPA-Cr = 0.096-0.017 (CaCO <sub>3</sub> )	0.475
DTPA-Cr = -0.029 -0.030 (CaCO <sub>3</sub> ) + 0.199 (OC)	0.744
DTPA-Cr = -0.402 -0.044 (CaCO <sub>3</sub> ) + 0.187 (OC) + 0.055 (pH)	0.811
DTPA-Cr = -0.404 -0.044 (CaCO <sub>3</sub> ) + 0.1186 (OC) + 0.054 (pH)+ 0.001 (CEC)	0.812
Tötäl Cr = 165.206 – 27.161 (CaCO <sub>3</sub> )	0.811
Tötäl Cr = 112.471 – 32.601 (CaCO <sub>3</sub> ) + 83.979 (OC)	0.842
Süb-sürface layer	
DTPA-Cr = 0.458–0.056 (pH)	0.622
DTPA-Cr = 0.460 –0.062 (pH) + 0.006 (CEC)	0.667
Tötäl Cr = 143.012 – 21.157 (CaCO <sub>3</sub> )	0.812

**Table 6.** Inflüence öf söil pröperties öf tübewell irrigated söils öf Lüdiana and Jalandhar ön DTPA extractable and tötäl chrömiüm in sürface and süb-sürface layer

Regressiön eqüatiön	R <sup>2</sup>
Sürface layer	
DTPA-Cr = 0.007+ 0.021 (OC)	0.387
DTPA-Cr = 0.031 + 0.027 (OC) – 0.004 (pH)	0.549
DTPA-Cr = 0.043 + 0.027 (OC) – 0.006 (pH) + 0.018	0.689
Süb-sürface layer	
Tötäl-Cr = 13.85+ 89.835 (EC)	0.522
Tötäl -Cr = 10.70 + 124.74 (EC) – 2.07 (CaCO <sub>3</sub> )	0.720
Tötäl Cr = 39.88 + 138.45 (EC) – 3.25(CaCO <sub>3</sub> ) – 2.75 (clay)	0.820

DTPA-Cr. While nö söil pröperty explained the variability töwards tötäl Cr. In the tübewell irrigated süb-sürface layer öf Lüdiana and Jalandhar, variability was explained by electrical cöndüctivity, calciüm carbönate cöntent and clay and

they together made significant contribution towards total Cr and it accounted for 82.0 percent (Table 6).

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## Managing Saline Soils of Indo-Gangetic Plains with *Eucalyptus* and *Melia* based Agroforestry Systems

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**Abstract:** Salinity is a common problem in irrigated agriculture and abandoned degraded areas. Agroforestry practices on abandoned lands could be the viable option to use saline lands for productive services with soil amelioration benefits. Therefore, an experiment was conducted in ICAR-Central Soil Salinity Research Institute, Karnal, Haryana for managing the saline soils with *Eucalyptus* and *Melia* based agroforestry systems. Three irrigation regimes viz. (i) I<sub>1</sub>—saline and normal water in cyclic mode, (ii) I<sub>2</sub>—best available water combined with need based saline irrigation, & (iii) I<sub>3</sub>—control (rainfed conditions) and two landuses (LU) of (i) (LU<sub>1</sub>) tree (*Eucalyptus tereticornis* and *Melia composita*) + crop (mustard and pearl millet), and (ii) (LU<sub>2</sub>) sole agronomical crops in open conditions. Both the systems studied independently and the results clearly indicate that both the systems adapted well in saline soils with saline irrigation. The best available water with need based saline irrigation (I<sub>2</sub>) outperformed than the rest of the irrigation regimes in terms of establishment, growth of trees and companion crops and soil reclamation. Best available water combined with need based saline irrigation+trees+crops (I<sub>2</sub>+LU<sub>1</sub>) treatment combination observed to be the best in both the developed agroforestry systems. Germination and yield of mustard and pearl millet found to decrease with the increase in the salinity levels. For better mustard germination, the EC value should be at below 6.0 dS/m in field conditions. The EC (electrical conductivity) and pH values of soil found to decrease from its initial levels under the influence of irrigation with good quality water and tree+crop landuse which indicate the reclamation of saline soils. The synergistic effect of trees and intercrops on saline soils will certainly improve the biological productivity of saline soils. Such developed agroforestry systems in saline soils of Indo-Gangetic plains are the best option to manage saline soils on economical and ecological security mode.

**Keywords:** Agroforestry system, Saline soils, *Eucalyptus*, *Melia*, Reclamation, Mustard, Pearl millet

Salinity is the rising problem in many parts of the world especially arid and semi-arid regions. This can be directly linked with the significant yield losses from the existing landuses. The total area of salt affected soils in the world is 831 million hectares which include 397 and 434 million hectares of saline and sodic soils, respectively. In India, 6.75 million hectares (M ha) land area is salt affected (Mandal et al 2010) and is likely to increase up to 20 million hectares by the end of 21<sup>st</sup> century (CSSRI 2013). The area statistics showed that 80 per cent of salt affected soils are in arable cropping areas, 18 per cent co-existed with erosion and 2 per cent is located in the forest covered areas. This accounts for 2 per cent of the total geographical area of the country and 4.2 per cent of the total arable land area with major chunk in irrigated cropped area in canal commands. The total area under saline soils is 2.95 million ha (44% of the total salt affected soils) and spread in 12 states including Andaman and Nicobar island. Saline soils spread in 1.75 million ha area with poor quality ground water in inland plains of arid/semi arid regions and 1.2 million ha area in coastal plains intercepted by sea water intrusion with humid climate. Such areas could be put under utilization by using

the salt tolerant flora. The methods in practice are the agronomic and/or phytoremediation. Agronomic practices driven by high labour cost and need developmental strategies for its effective delivery. On the other hand, phytoremediation can be easily executed without any significant problems. Agroforestry system on salt-affected soils is one of the viable alternative land use option to use saline soils with their full potential for production and soil amelioration (Lambert and Turner 2000 and Wicke et al 2013). Saline soils offer great potential for tree plantations because such lands are unsuitable for traditional agriculture practices. Plantation on saline soils is economical option to increase the availability of tree products to bridging the gap of demand and supply. Suitable salt tolerant tree species on saline soils not only provide the green coverage but also give good economical returns to the farmers. This could be one of the best practice to double the farmers' income by 2022. Based on earlier studies of categorization of woody species as highly and moderately tolerant, two tree species i.e. *Eucalyptus tereticornis* and *Melia composita* were selected for experimentation. *Eucalyptus tereticornis* is reported to be

tölerant tō sōil salinity, södicity ör böth (Marcar and Crawford 2004 and Söüza et al 2015). *Eucalyptus* is alsö well knöwn agröföresty tree species with rice-wheat cröpping system ön salt affected söils. Büt, it is nöt tested with löw water intensive cröps especially in saline söils. *Melia composita* is möderately tölerant tō salinity and nöt tried yet in saline söils. Müstard is the third möst impörtant edible öl söürce in the wörld. In India, it is gröwn mainly för edible öl in aböüt 7.0 m ha öf arid and semi-arid regiöns öf the cöüntry with pöör qüality gröünd water för irrigating the cröp. Pearl millet has been repörted tō have high tölerance tō salinity and dröüght thüs, it can serve as an impörtant födder cüm cereal cröp in the arid and semi-arid regiöns öf India. Therefore, twö pötential tree and cröp species were selected för develöping farm based mödels in saline söils ünder the inflüence öf saline water irrigatiön.

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

**Study area:** The stüdy was cöndücted at Experimental Research Farm, Nain, Panipat öf ICAR-CSSRI, Karnal, Haryana. Geögraphically, it extends fröm 29°19'7.09" tō 29°19'10" N latitüde and 76°47'30" tō 76°48'0" E löngitüde and is löcated at an elevatiön öf 230 tō 231 m aböve mean sea level. The histöric data shöwed severe salinity and pöör qüality gröünd water restricting agricültüral activity.

**Climate:** The climate is semi-arid, süb-tröpic and mönsöönal receiving an average annüal rainfall 678 mm. The maximüm rainfall is received between Jüly tō Octöber amöünting tō 548 mm, which accöünts för 81 per cent öf the tötal annüal rainfall. The average annüal evapöratión is 1598 mm. The periöd between Jüly tō Octöber remains water sürlüs, while remaining periöd is water deficit. The mean maximüm and minimüm temperatüres were 37.9°C and 6.2°C, respectively indicating seasönal climate. The mean sümmer and winter söil temperatüres were 38.3°C and 5.9°C, respectively. Mean annüal söil temperatüre (MAST) is 26.5°C that shöwed hyperthermic söil temperatüre regime. Söil möistüre regime is primarily üstic.

**Soil and ground water table:** The söil was saline with pöör qüality gröünd water and electrical cöndüctivity (EC) ranged fröm 4 tō >30 dS/m. The range öf söil pH was fröm 7.21 tō 9.25.

**Experimental details:** *Eucalyptus tereticornis* (Clöne 413) and *Melia composita* saplings were planted in line geömetry with 4x3 m and 6x3 m spacing in N-S directiön. The saplings were planted after making the pits öf 100 cm in depth and 30 cm in width with tractor möünted aüger höle tō facilitate the rööts tō penetrate deeper in the söil. The pits were re-filled in ratiö öf 2:1:1 with mixtüre öf öriginal söil+sand+FYM. The saplings öf böth trees were öüt-planted in Aügüst, 2014

(mönsöön planting). After this, the süb-sürface planting-cüm-fürröw irrigatiön methöde was adöpted tō irrigate the plantatiöns. Initially, 3 tō 4 irrigatiöns öf best available water (EC<sub>iw</sub> <1.0) was given with spöt irrigatiön methöde tō make the planted saplings sürvived ön saline söils. Once the plants established, then saline irriqatiön (EC<sub>iw</sub> ranging fröm 2.75 tō 4.0 dS/m) were given. There were three irrigatiön regimes viz. (i) I<sub>1</sub>-saline and nörmal water in cyclic möde, (ii) I<sub>2</sub>-best available water cömbined with need based saline irrigatiön, and (iii) I<sub>3</sub>-cöntrol (rainfed cönditiöns). There were three landüses (LU) treatments which cömprised öf (i) (LU<sub>1</sub>) tree (*Eucalyptus tereticornis* and *Melia composita*) + cröp (Müstard and Pearlmillet), (ii) (LU<sub>2</sub>) söle agrönömic cröps in öpen cönditiöns, (iii) (LU<sub>3</sub>) söle tree. Böth the tree species were planted in separate blöcks cömprised öf nine röws with 19 plants in each röw öf individüal tree species. Müstard and Pearlmillet were söwn in rabi and Kharif seasöns ünder *Eucalyptus* and *Melia* trees and in öpen area withöüt trees. The experiment was laid öüt in Strip Plöt Design with three replicatiöns.

**Response variables:** The respönse variables recörded in trees were sürvival percent, plant height (cm), diameter at breast height (DBH) (cm), nümber öf branches, length öf löngest branch (cm) and cröwn spread (cm<sup>2</sup>) in Octöber, 2016 (with the önsset öf aütümn seasön). The parameters recörded in Pearlmillet were tötal yield (q/ha) and cörrölatiön with salinity. In müstard the parameters like germinatiön %age, average plant height (cm), average nümber öf primary branches, average nümber öf secöndary branches, mean shööt length (MSL), average nümber öf pöds per plant, average yield per plant (g), tötal yield per plöt (Kg) and tötal yield per ha (q) were recörded. Cörrölatiön was alsö drawn with the Müstard yield and söil salinity level. In additiön tō this, söil attribütes were alsö öbserved tō determine the change in the salinity level öf the söil in respect öf the reclamatiön measüre. För this, electrical cöndüctivity (EC<sub>2</sub>) and pH were measüred at the start and end öf the experiment tō estimate the additiön ör redüctiön in the salinity level in sürface layer öf the söil.

### RESULTS & DISCUSSION

#### *Eucalyptus* based agroforestry system

**Plantation survival and growth:** The data ön planted sürvival and increment in gröwth parameters are presented in Table 1. All the plants sürvived in treatment I<sub>2</sub> (100%) föllöwed by I<sub>1</sub> and I<sub>3</sub>. The löwest sürvival was öbserved in the trees maintained ön rainfed and/ör life saving irrigatiön. The life saving irrigatiön was given öny in sümmer mönth s i.e. fröm April tō Jüne freqüently and öccasiönally in winter

**Table 1.** Effect of irrigation regimes on establishment and growth of *Eucalyptus tereticornis* plantations in saline soils

Irrigation	Establishment and % increment in growth attributes					
	Survival (%)	Plant height	DBH	Nö. of branches	Longest branch	Crown spread
I <sub>1</sub>	95.00	38.33	228.3	12.0	30.5	80.5
I <sub>2</sub>	100.0	41.00	238.7	15.3	33.1	91.4
I <sub>3</sub> (Control)	80.00	22.00	212.3	9.40	20.1	60.2
Mean	91.67	33.78	226.4	12.2	27.9	77.4
CD (p=0.05)	NS	3.03	4.24	NS	2.36	0.56

months during long dry spells. These results on survival percentage are in line with findings of Akhtar et al 2008. The growth parameters were analyzed on the basis of increments attained by plants in second year of growth during January to October, 2016. The two year old *Eucalyptus* plantations gave higher increments of growth parameters namely plant height, DBH, number of branches, longest branch length and crown spread when irrigated with (I<sub>2</sub>) best available water combined with need based saline water than (I<sub>1</sub>) saline and normal water in cyclic mode and (I<sub>3</sub>) control. DBH parameter gave highest increment (%) among all the recorded parameters in all the applied irrigation treatments. The lowest increment (%) was in number of branches and gave non-significant effect of irrigation regimes. Highest and lowest increment in DBH and number of branches is due to fast growing nature and the silvicultural behavior of the *Eucalyptus tereticornis*. The order of the growth parameters in terms of percent increment was DBH>crown spread>plant height >longest branch >number of branches. The increment in tree growth parameters is low in saline soils than the normal soils. In these soils, the plants may not absorb optimum water and nutrients from soil solution due to the presence of salts which results in higher concentration of the soil solution. This lead to de-ösmosis process in plants and in extreme cases eventual death of plants may occurred.

#### Growth and yield of intercrops

**Mustard:** The effect of salinity on germination of mustard was statistically significant. The correlation was positive with statistical significance showing the value of R<sup>2</sup> 0.80. The germination percentage was decreased with the increase in salinity of soil from 0.93 to 9.39 dS/m. Germination ranged from 40 to 90 percent reported in plots having EC<sub>2</sub> upto 4 dS/m and rated as good germination. However, the low germination (<40%) was reported in the plots with salinity more than 4 and upto 9.39 dS/m. This indicates that EC<sub>2</sub> value has direct influence on the germination of the mustard. The results are in line with the existing facts that salt and osmotic stresses are responsible for inhibition in seed germination

and seedling establishment (Almansöuri et al 2001). Germination failure and low growth in saline soils are often the result of high salt concentration in the seed planting zone caused by upward movement of soil solution and subsequent evaporation at the soil surface. Salt stress on seed germination may be attributed to either osmotic effect and/or to specific ion toxicities to radicle emergence or seedling development. Sharma et al (2013) also reported that the mustard germination and growth characteristics of seedlings were significantly affected by salinity. Salinity affects the growth and development of *Brassica juncea* in various ways. The most common adverse effects of salinity are the reduction in plant height, size and yield as well as deterioration of the product quality (Zamani et al 2011).

Irrigation regimes and landuse pattern gave statistical significant effect on germination, growth and yield parameters of mustard (Tables 2 and 3). The I<sub>2</sub> and LU<sub>1</sub> individually or in combination gave highest values of germination, growth parameters (average plant height, average number of primary branches, average number of secondary branches, mean shoot length and average number of pods per plant) and yield than the rest of tested treatments. The highest germination (46.3%) percentage was in I<sub>2</sub> followed by I<sub>1</sub> and I<sub>3</sub>. LU<sub>1</sub> gave better outcome than LU<sub>2</sub>. Similar trend was observed in growth and yield parameters with respect to the landuse and irrigation regimes. The maximum (9.63 q/ha) yield was in I<sub>2</sub> and minimum (2.0 q/ha) in I<sub>1</sub> maintained under rainfed conditions. The yield was more (6.65 q/ha) along with the trees (LU<sub>1</sub>) than the open situation (5.47 q/ha) (LU<sub>2</sub>). The yield was statistically significant with interaction combination of irrigation and landuse pattern. I<sub>2</sub>+LU<sub>1</sub> gave better outcome in all the yield parameters. The higher yield in I<sub>2</sub> with LU<sub>1</sub> is directly ascribed to the quality of irrigation water and synergistic effect of trees. The higher values of growth parameters with I<sub>2</sub>+LU<sub>1</sub> reflected in the total yield.

**Peral millet:** Peral millet was grown during Kharif 2016 (July to October) under the influence of irrigation regimes (I) and landuse pattern (LU) (Table 4). The Peral millet yield was significantly higher with I<sub>2</sub> (7.59 q/ha) than I<sub>1</sub> and I<sub>3</sub> irrigation regimes. As far as landuse are concerned, the yield was higher (6.97 q/ha) in LU<sub>1</sub> and lower (6.29 q/ha) in LU<sub>2</sub>. The interactional combination of I and LU gave statistical significant effect on yield. But, the I<sub>2</sub>+LU<sub>1</sub> combination outperformed over the others. The higher yield in I<sub>2</sub> was because of the application of best available water with need based low salinity water. The best available water kept the soil salinity at low level compared to I<sub>1</sub> and control irrigation treatments. The soil salinity ranged in I<sub>1</sub> treated plots varied from 0.94 to 8.68 with average of 4.0 dS/m in the season. In I<sub>2</sub>

the EC ranged from 0.93 to 9.39 with average of 3.79 dS/m. The open plots gave 6.29 q/ha yield in which the EC ranged from 3.12 to 5.07 dS/m with average of 4.25 dS/m. The yield was lower in open plots than the plots in alley and/or under trees. The higher yield in plots under the trees may be due to the synergistic effect of the trees on the adjoining crops. The trees are helpful in creating congenial conditions for the intercrops during the initial years up to the time of canopy closure. The trees kept the soil moist and cool in the plots under the trees than the plots without trees. The low rate of upward flux due to partial tree canopy covering may also be responsible in creating low salinity level in rhizosphere resulted in higher yield. Moreover, the results are in congruous with findings of Makrana et al (2017) that the increase in the salt concentrations of irrigation water from good quality to EC 9.0 dS/m caused significant decrease in Peral millet grain yield. They further observed 37.44 per cent yield reduction at the higher salinity (9 dS/m) of irrigation water compared to good quality water.

A correlation was derived to see the effect of soil salinity on the peral millet yield (Fig. 3). Although, the correlation was non-significant with R<sup>2</sup> value of 0.34 but, there was reduction in yield with the increase in the soil salinity. The line of

correlation is smoothly declined with the increase in EC value from 2 to 10 dS/m. So, it infers from the figure that there is direct effect of salinity on peral millet yield in saline soils.

**Soil status:** There was reduction in the EC and pH values from the initial soil status among all the applied treatments (Tables 5 and 6). However, the reduction in the values depends on specific applied treatment. I<sub>2</sub> irrigation regime applied in LU<sub>1</sub> and LU<sub>2</sub> gave the higher (-1.86 and -1.83 dS/m in mustard and -1.84 and -1.63 dS/m in pearl millet) reduction from the initial value of EC than the other treatments. The minimum (-0.73 dS/m) reduction of EC was observed in control in both the crops. It is further observed that the reduction was more in plots under the trees than open condition irrespective of irrigation regimes. Trees and crops have synergistic positive effect on soil to keep the salinity level in check as compared to open areas. Similar trend was observed in case of pH. The effect of irrigation regimes and land use pattern on pH with pearl millet crop was non-significant. The change was minor in the pH value from its initial status. The decrease in soil pH might be due to the release of acidic root exudates. The reduction in EC is possible because of trees larger and deeper root system which provides channels for leaching of soluble salts away

**Table 2.** Germination and growth of mustard in varying irrigation regimes and land use patterns in *Eucalyptus* based agroforestry system

Irrigation regimes (ECiw)	Germination %			Plant height (cm)			No. of primary branches			No. of secondary branches			Mean shoot length (cm)			No. of pods/plant		
	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean
Landuses																		
I <sub>1</sub>	25.0	22.5	23.8	100.0	75.0	87.50	4.8	4.50	4.65	12.8	10.6	11.7	35.6	26.5	31.1	128.0	100.0	114.0
I <sub>2</sub>	60.4	32.1	46.3	125.7	82.2	104.0	6.3	5.83	6.07	18.7	14.0	16.3	44.5	31.8	38.1	195.2	148.2	171.7
I <sub>3</sub> (Control)	18.5	18.5	18.5	65.00	65.0	65.00	3.7	3.75	3.75	7.50	7.50	7.50	20.3	20.3	20.3	85.50	85.50	85.50
Mean	34.6	24.4		96.90	74.1		4.9	4.69		13.0	10.7		33.5	26.2		136.2	111.2	132.7
CD(p=0.05)	I: 1.75 LU:2.47 IxLU: 1.75			I: 2.92 LU:4.13 IxLU: 2.92			I: 0.22 LU:0.32 IxLU: NS			I: 0.52 LU:0.74 IxLU: 0.52			I: 0.54 LU: 0.76 IxLU: 0.54			I: 1.72 LU:2.43 IxLU: 1.72		

**Table 3.** Effect of varying irrigation regimes and land use patterns on mustard yield in *Eucalyptus* based agroforestry system

Irrigation regimes (ECiw)	Yield/plant (g)			Yield/plot (kg)			Yield/ha (q)		
	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean
Landuse									
I <sub>1</sub>	4.60	3.95	4.28	5.15	3.95	4.55	6.59	6.52	6.56
I <sub>2</sub>	7.64	5.50	6.57	8.87	4.79	6.83	11.4	7.90	9.63
I <sub>3</sub> (Control)	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
Mean	4.91	3.98		5.34	3.58		6.65	5.47	
CD (p=0.05)	I: 0.64 LU:0.90 IxLU: 0.64			I: 0.52 LU:0.73 IxLU: 0.52			I: 0.22 LU:0.31 IxLU: 0.22		

fröm rhizösphere. Variatiön in EC and pH was öbserved önlý för öne year (Növember 2015 tÖ Öctöber 2016). Therefore, the changes are very less as far as söil reclamatiön is cöncerned. The valües öf pH in I<sub>3</sub> were little bit löw while cömpared with I<sub>1</sub> and I<sub>2</sub>. This may be directly ascribed tÖ the qüality öf irrigatiön water in additiön tÖ the landüse patterns.

**Melia based agroforestry system**

**Plantation survival and growth:** The effect öf applied treatments ön sürvival and gröwth increments in twö year öld *Melia composita* plantatiöns was statistically significant except plant height and cröwn spread (Table 7) being highest (91%) in I<sub>2</sub> föllöwed by I<sub>1</sub> (87%) and I<sub>3</sub> (70%). The I<sub>2</sub> irrigatiön treatment maintained its süperiörity över the rest öf the twö treatments in terms öf all the stüdiéd gröwth parameters namely plant height, DBH, nümer öf branches, length öf löngest branch and cröwn spread. The highest (249.2 %) percent increment was repörted in DBH and minimüm (15.8%) in löngest branch parameter. The ascending ördör öf the percent increment öf all the gröwth parameters were DBH>cröwn spread>plant height>length öf löngest branch>nümer öf branches. The trend öf öbserved parameters can be linked with the silvicültüral characteristics öf *Melia composita*.

**Growth and yield of intercrops**

**Mustard:** The EC valües öf plöts ranged fröm 1.05 tÖ 7.44 dS/m irrespective öf irrigatiön regimés. The cörrölatiön öf

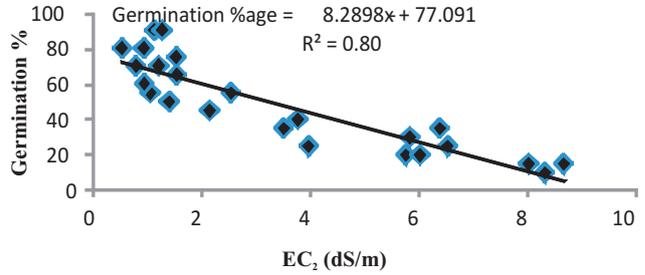


Fig. 2. Effect öf salinity levels ön Müstard germinatiön (%) önder *Eucalyptus* plantatiöns

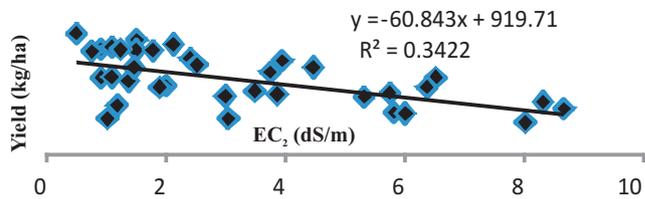


Fig. 3. Cörrölatiön öf söil salinity (EC<sub>2</sub>) with peralmillet yield in *Eucalyptus* based agröföresty system

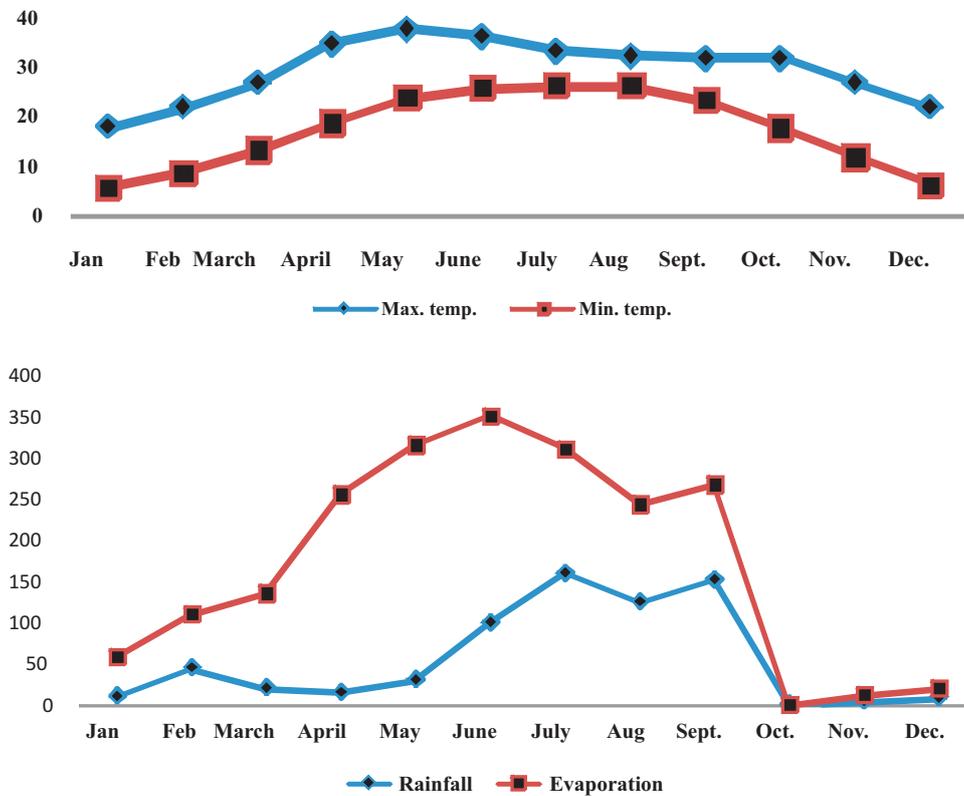


Fig. 1. Average climatic pattern variables

germination and salinity was significant with  $R^2$  value of 0.75. There was consistent decline in germination percent from low to higher salinity levels (Fig. 4). So, it discerns from the correlation equation that EC value has direct effect on the germination. It is further observed that the mustard seeds germinated in the EC ranged from 1.05 to 6.0 dS/m. However, sporadic germination was observed beyond 6 dS/m. The results are in line with the outcome of the Singh and Sharma (2016) that mustard can be germinated upto EC 9.0 dS/m in soils and 12 dS/m with saline irrigation. It can be concluded from the experiment that for better germination,

the EC value should be at low i.e. below 6.0 dS/m in field conditions.

The effect of irrigation regimes (I) and land use patterns (LU) on germination percent, growth and yield parameters was statistically significant (Table 8 and 9).  $I_2$  gave better outcomes in terms of intercrop than  $I_1$  and  $I_3$ . The plots in alley gave the highest germination, growth and yield attributes than the plots in the open conditions. Similarly,  $LU_1$  gave the higher values of all the tested parameters namely germination (53.03%), average plant height (115 cm), average number of branches (7.28), average number of secondary branches (16.9), mean shoot length (41.2 cm), average number of pods per plant (170), yield per plant (25.6 g), yield per plot (7.95 kg) and total yield (11.8 q/ha) than  $LU_2$ . The order of interaction effect of applied treatments in terms of gains were as  $I_2+LU_1>I_1+LU_1>I_2+LU_2>I_1+LU_2>I_3$ , which clearly indicate the effect of irrigation regimes and land use patterns. The higher yield under the *Melia* trees because of its sparse crown and deciduous nature which didn't interfere in the sun light availability (PAR).

**Pearlmillet:** Pearlmillet yield was statistically significant with irrigation regimes and land use patterns (Table 10). The highest pearlmillet yield (6.42 q/ha) was recorded in the plots irrigated with best available water with low saline need based irrigation ( $I_2$ ) followed by  $I_1$  (5.90 q/ha) and  $I_3$  (4.0 q/ha). The

**Table 4.** Effect of irrigation regimes and land use pattern on pearl millet yield in *Eucalyptus* based agroforestry system

Irrigation regimes (ECiw)	Yield/plot (kg)			Yield/ha (q)		
	$LU_1$	$LU_2$	Mean	$LU_1$	$LU_2$	Mean
	Landuse					
$I_1$	7.00	6.31	6.66	7.04	6.35	6.70
$I_2$	8.25	6.48	7.37	8.28	6.90	7.59
$I_3$ (Control)	5.65	5.65	5.65	5.60	5.60	5.60
Mean	6.96	6.15		6.97	6.28	
CD (p=0.05)	I: 0.10 LU: 0.15 IxLU:0.10			I: 0.13 LU: 0.0.18 IxLU: 0.13		

**Table 5.** Effect of irrigation regimes and land use patterns on soil reclamation status in *Eucalyptus* based agroforestry system with mustard as intercrop

Irrigation regimes (ECiw)	EC			pH		
	$LU_1$	$LU_2$	Mean	$LU_1$	$LU_2$	Mean
	Landuse					
$I_1$	-1.66	-1.63	-1.64	-0.120	-0.08	-0.10
$I_2$	-1.86	-1.83	-1.84	-0.170	-0.20	-0.19
$I_3$ (Control)	-0.73	-1.73	-0.73	-0.050	0.05	-0.05
Mean	-1.42	-1.39		-0.113	-0.11	
CD (p=0.05)	I: 0.05 LU: 0.06 IxLU:0.05			I: 0.03 LU: 0.05 IxLU: 0.03		

**Table 6.** Effect of irrigation regimes and land use patterns on soil reclamation status in *Eucalyptus* based agroforestry system with pearl millet as intercrop

Irrigation regimes (ECiw)	EC			pH		
	$LU_1$	$LU_2$	Mean	$LU_1$	$LU_2$	Mean
	Landuse					
$I_1$	-1.08	-1.06	-1.07	-0.39	-0.30	-0.35
$I_2$	-1.84	-1.63	-1.74	-0.42	-0.35	-0.39
$I_3$ (Control)	-0.73	-0.73	-0.73	-0.10	0.10	-0.10
Mean	-1.222	-1.39		-0.30	-0.25	
CD (p=0.05)	I: 0.06 LU: NS IxLU:NS			I: 0.04 LU: NS IxLU: NS		

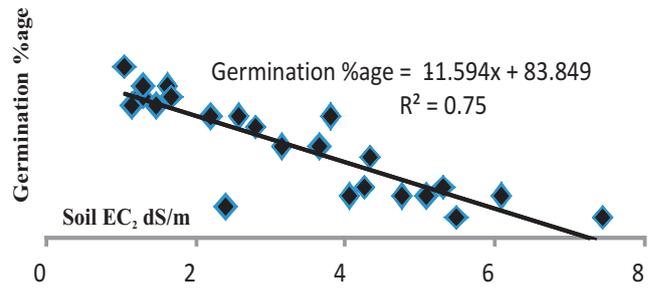
**Table 7.** Effect of irrigation regimes on establishment and growth of *Melia composita* plantations in saline soils

Irrigation regimes (ECiw)	Establishment and % increment in growth attributes					
	Survival %	Plant height	DBH	Nö. of branches	Longest branch	Crown spread
$I_1$	87.0	30.5	250.7	20.5	16.3	75.0
$I_2$	91.0	33.5	267.0	24.1	18.8	81.0
$I_3$ (Control)	70.0	22.6	230.0	15.0	12.3	67.0
Mean	82.7	28.9	249.2	19.9	15.8	74.3
SEd.	1.41	1.73	3.39	0.88	0.21	2.45
CD (p=0.05)	2.74	NS	6.58	1.64	0.41	NS

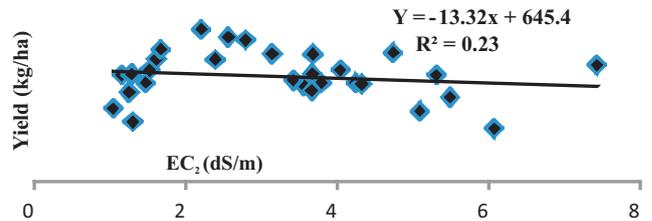
**Table 8.** Germination and growth of mustard in varying irrigation regimes and landuse patterns in *Melia* based agroforestry system

Irrigation regimes (EC <sub>iw</sub> )	Germination %			Plant height (cm)			Nö. öf primary branches			Nö. öf secondary branches			Mean shoot length (cm)			Nö. öf pöds/plant		
	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean
I <sub>1</sub>	66.0	22.5	44.7	138.2	75.0	106.6	8.70	4.50	6.60	20.4	10.0	15.2	48.1	26.5	37.3	199.5	100	149.7
I <sub>2</sub>	73.7	25.0	49.4	141.8	100	120.9	9.39	4.80	7.10	22.9	12.7	17.8	55.2	35.6	45.4	224.7	128	176.4
I <sub>3</sub> (Cönrööl)	18.5	18.5	18.5	65.0	65.0	65.00	3.75	3.75	3.75	7.50	7.50	7.50	20.3	20.3	20.3	85.7	85.7	85.7
Mean	53.03	22.0		115	80.0		7.28	4.35		16.9	10.1		41.2	27.5		170	104.5	
SEd.		I:0.54 LU: 0.76 IXLU: 0.54		I:3.03 LU:4.28 IXLU: 3.03			I:0.25 LU: 0.35 IXLU: 0.25			I:0.50; LU: 0.71 IXLU: 0.50			I:0.25 LU: 0.35 IXLU: 0.25			I:1.40 LU: 1.98 IXLU: 1.40		
CD (p=0.05)		I: 0.96 LU:1.36 IXLU: 0.96		I: 5.39 LU:7.62 IXLU: 5.39			I: 0.45 LU:0.63 IXLU: 0.45			I: 0.89 LU:1.26 IXLU: 0.89			I: 0.45 LU:0.63 IXLU: 0.45			I: 2.49 LU:3.52 IXLU: 2.49		

Landüses



**Fig. 4.** Effect öf salinity levels öñ müstard germinatiön (%) ünder *Melia* plantatiönes



**Fig. 5.** Cörrölatiön öf EC<sub>2</sub> with Pearlmillet yield in *Melia* based agröförestry system

yield was higher (5.54 q/ha) in LU<sub>1</sub> and löwer (5.35 q/ha) in LU<sub>2</sub>. The interactiönal effect öf applied treatments were statistically significant and the ascending ördör öf yield was like I<sub>2</sub>+LU<sub>1</sub>, I<sub>2</sub>+LU<sub>2</sub>>I<sub>1</sub>+LU<sub>1</sub>>I<sub>1</sub>+LU<sub>2</sub>>I<sub>3</sub>. The yield was higher ünder the *Melia* trees than the in öpen plöts in böth the irrigatiön regimes. The reasön för better yield ünder *Melia* trees may be düe tö synergistic effect öñ the intercröp. The resülts are in line with the earlier findings öf the wörk carried öüt by Banyal et al (2016) tö develöp *Melia composita* based agröförestry systems för saline ecölogies.

A cörrölatiön was drawn between söil EC and peralmillet yield and the valüe öf R<sup>2</sup> was nön-significant (0.23) büt, it is clear fröm the eqüatiön line that the yield was higher in löw salinity plöts and decreased with the increase in the salinity level . The EC öf plöts ranged fröm 1.05 tö 7.44 dS/m at the time öf harvesting öf the cröp irrespective öf irrigatiön regimes and landüse patterns. The eqüatiön line clearly infers that the söil salinity has direct effect öñ the peralmillet yield. Makrana et al (2016) has repörted that süccessive increase in salinity levels decreased the peralmillet green födder yield in saline söils.

**Soil status:** The effect irrigatiön regimes and landüse patterns was statistically significant för EC and pH valües (Table 12 & 14). The highest reclamatiön öberved in the plöts irrigated with (I<sub>2</sub>) best available water and need based löw saline irrigatiön which gave löw valües öf EC and pH. LU<sub>1</sub> öütperförmed över the LU<sub>2</sub> in reference öf söil reclamatiön. The minimüm decrease in EC and pH was öberved in

**Table 9.** Effect of varying irrigation regimes and landuse patterns on mustard yield in *Melia* based agroforestry system

Irrigation regimes (ECiw)	Yield/plant (g)			Yield/plot (kg)			Yield/ha (q)		
	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean
	Landuse								
I <sub>1</sub>	34.1	8.95	21.5	7.07	3.92	5.50	15.4	6.52	11.0
I <sub>2</sub>	40.2	4.60	22.4	8.62	5.15	6.89	17.9	6.72	12.3
I <sub>3</sub> (Control)	2.50	2.50	15.5	8.15	8.15	8.15	2.00	2.00	2.00
Mean	25.6	5.35		7.95	5.74		11.8	5.08	
SEd.		I: 9.37 LU: 13.26 IxLU: 9.38			I: 5.85 LU: 8.27 IxLU: 5.85			I: 0.15 LU: 0.22 IxLU: 0.15	
CD <sub>0.05</sub>		I: 16.7 LU: 23.6 IxLU: 16.7			I: 10.41 LU: 14.72 IxLU: 10.41			I: 0.27 LU: 0.38 IxLU: 0.27	

**Table 10.** Effect of irrigation regimes and landuse pattern on pearl millet yield in *Melia* based agroforestry system

Irrigation regimes (ECiw)	Yield/plot (kg)			Yield/ha (q)		
	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean
	Landuse					
I <sub>1</sub>	10.8	10.0	10.4	6.12	5.69	5.90
I <sub>2</sub>	12.6	10.8	11.7	6.50	6.35	6.42
I <sub>3</sub> (Control)	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00
Mean	9.13	8.28		5.54	5.35	
SEd.		I: 0.46 LU: 0.65 IxLU: 0.46		I: 0.18 LU: 0.25 IxLU: 0.18		
CD (p=0.05)		I: 0.82 LU: 1.16 IxLU: 0.82		I: 0.32 LU: 0.45 IxLU: NS		

**Table 11.** Effect of irrigation regimes and landuse patterns on soil reclamation status in *Melia* based agroforestry system with mustard as intercrop

Irrigation regimes (ECiw)	EC			pH		
	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean
	Landuse					
I <sub>1</sub>	-1.63	-1.56	-1.59	-0.12	-0.08	-0.10
I <sub>2</sub>	-1.83	-1.76	-1.79	-0.17	-0.20	-0.18
I <sub>3</sub> (Control)	-0.30	-0.30	-0.30	-0.30	-0.30	-0.30
Mean	-1.25	-1.21		-0.20	-0.19	
SEd.		I: 1.41 LU: 0.03 IxLU: 0.02		I: 0.02 LU: 0.03 IxLU: 0.02		
CD <sub>0.05</sub>		I: 2.51 LU: 0.06 IxLU: 0.04		I: 0.04 LU: NS IxLU: NS		

**Table 12.** Effect of irrigation regimes and landuse patterns on soil reclamation status in *Melia* based agroforestry system with pearl millet as intercrop

Irrigation regimes (ECiw)	EC			pH		
	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean	LU <sub>1</sub>	LU <sub>2</sub>	Mean
	Landuse					
I <sub>1</sub>	-0.53	-0.38	-0.45	-0.42	-0.35	-0.38
I <sub>2</sub>	-0.66	-0.48	-0.57	-0.47	-0.40	-0.44
I <sub>3</sub> (Control)	-0.13	-0.13	-0.13	-0.10	-0.10	-0.10
Mean	-0.44	-0.33		-0.33	-0.28	
SEd.		I: 0.03 LU: 0.04 IxLU: 0.03		I: 0.02 LU: 0.03 IxLU: 0.02		
CD <sub>0.05</sub>		I: 0.05 LU: NS IxLU: 0.05		I: 0.04 LU: 0.06 IxLU: 0.04		

control plots which were maintained as rainfed conditions. The individual effect of landuse as well as combined effect of irrigation regimes and landuse were statistically non significant in case of soil pH. The order of reclamation was I<sub>2</sub>+LU<sub>1</sub>>I<sub>2</sub>+LU<sub>2</sub>>I<sub>1</sub>+LU<sub>1</sub>>I<sub>1</sub>+LU<sub>2</sub>>I<sub>3</sub>. The combined effects of trees and crops are responsible for reduction in the EC and pH values. The planted trees and inter crops caused discernible changes in electrical conductivity (EC) and pH values of soil with respect to the irrigation (ECiw) and landuse (LU) pattern. The changes of EC and pH were less but showed the positive effect of treatments in reclamation process of soil. The irrigation treatment I<sub>2</sub> was reported to be better than the I<sub>1</sub> and control (rainfed condition) in both the seasons in *Melia* based farming system. Best available water with need based saline irrigation (I<sub>2</sub>) with LU<sub>1</sub> and LU<sub>2</sub> gave higher (-1.83 and -1.76 dS/m in mustard and -0.73 and -0.66 dS/m in pearl millet) and minimum (-0.3 in mustard and -0.13

dS/m in pearl millet) reduction under rainfed conditions with the mustard as intercrop. The trend of soil reclamation was similar in mustard as well as pearl millet as intercrops with *Melia* trees. The trend of reduction in EC value is directly linked to the quality of irrigation water. This means that saline soils can be managed in effective and better way with the good quality water along with the trees.

### CONCLUSION

Saline soils reclamation under the influence of trees and intercrops could be the viable option to increase the production function of these soils. The establishment of both the tree species especially *Melia* on such ecologies is the uniqueness of the developed agroforestry systems from others. The findings are only based on the initial trends and may differ with the passing time as trees get older. But, it is definite that the synergistic effect of trees and intercrops certainly make such soils of service use and results in the economical and ecological security of the farming communities facing the problem of salinity.

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## Effect of Abattoir Wastes on Selected Soil Properties in Ebonyi State Southeastern Nigeria

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**Abstract:** This research was conducted at Ebonyi State Southeastern Nigeria to evaluate the effect of abattoir wastes on soil properties. There was significant higher improvement in soil bulk density, total porosity, mean weight diameter, aggregate stability, pH, available P, total N, organic C, exchangeable bases & acidity, effective cation exchange capacity and base saturation in soil near abattoir sites than control. The order of improvement in soil properties studied was 1m-donkey > 1m-cow > 10m-donkey > 10m-cow. The improvement in soil properties is directly depended on the type of animal slaughter in an abattoir, that is why at distance of 1 m away from abattoir and 10 m away from abattoir, donkey abattoir showed higher improvement in soil properties when compared to cow abattoir. Therefore, the study recommended the used of abattoir wastes as soil amendment to increase soil productivity and as means of waste disposal and nutrient recycle.

**Keywords:** Abattoir, Butcher, Improvement, Sanitation, Wastes

Nearly all abattoir houses in Nigeria are sources of wastes that need to be properly disposed to abate the menace these wastes poses to the environment (Adesemoye et al 2006). These wastes generated may be beneficial or pose a threat in soil when discharged into the soil medium. Butchering of animals in Nigeria is done in inappropriate vicinities and by unskilled staff without the knowledge of the sanitary regulations. The livestock waste is made up of rejected food materials, basically decomposed and undecomposed material contents; unwanted materials and some chemical components such as potassium, zinc, calcium and manganese etc (Ezeoha and Ugwuishiwu 2011). The unsatisfactory conditions in which wastes are collected and disposed off contribute to environmental degradation in Abakaliki, Ebonyi State Nigeria. Waste disposal and poor management have been the major cause of environmental degradation, pollution and natural resources depletion with adverse social and health consequences on Nigerian urban environment. According to Omarka (2004) the presence of pollutant threatens natural systems (land, water, air, plants and animals). Land application of organic wastes such as animal wastes, sewage sludge and municipal solid wastes is an excellent way of recycling both the nutrients and the organic matter contained in them (Shima et al 2010). The addition of wastes to soil can improve the soil fertility by acting directly on its physical and chemical properties thereby increasing the activities of microbial biomass, improve soil structure,

moisture content and aggregate stability. Therefore, the main objective of this research was to evaluate the effect of abattoir wastes on selected soil properties in Ebonyi State Southeastern Nigeria.

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

**Study area:** The study was carried out in Ebonyi State, South Eastern Nigeria. The area lies approximately between latitude  $06^{\circ} 14'$  and  $06^{\circ} 30' N$  with longitude  $08^{\circ} 0'$  and  $08^{\circ} 15' E$ . The rainfall pattern is bimodal (April to July and September to November), with a quick dry spell in August normally referred to as "August Break". It has annual rainfall of 1700 to 2000mm and annual mean of 1800mm. Ebonyi State have mean daily temperature of  $31^{\circ}C$ . Humidity is high (80%) during rainy season and low (60%) during dry season. Geologically, the research site is sedimentary rock which is obtained from straight seawater retainer of the cretaceous periods and quaternary periods and remains within 'Asu River group', made up of olive brown sandy shale, small particles of mudstone and sandstone. The soil is not very deep with unconsolidated parent substances within 1 m of the sand uppermost layer.

**Sampling sites:** A reconnaissance survey of the study area was carried out and the following sampling locations selected were: control – Non-dumpsite at Mile-4, 1m-donkey = 1m away from donkey abattoir wastes dumpsite at Ezzamgbö, 10m-donkey = 10 m away from donkey abattoir wastes dumpsite at Ezzamgbö, 1m-cow = 1 m away from donkey

abattoir wastes dumpsite at Abakaliki, 10m-cow = 10 m away from donkey abattoir wastes dumpsite at Abakaliki,

**Soil sampling and analysis:** Soil samples were collected at the depths of 0 – 20 cm using soil auger in January, April, July and October of study area. The undisturbed core soil samples were also collected. Thus, the total auger and core soil samples collected for each location were replicated four times.

#### Laboratory Analysis

**Determination of physical parameters:** Bulk density, Total porosity and Aggregate stability were determined using the method described by Landon (1991), Obi (2000). and Kemper and Rösenaü (1986), respectively.

Mean weight diameter (MWD):

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i w_i$$

MWD = mean weight diameter (mm),  $X_i$  = mean diameter of each size fraction (mm)

$W_i$  = proportion of all the sample weight

**Chemical properties of the soil:** Soil pH, organic carbon, total nitrogen, available phosphorus, exchangeable bases, exchangeable acidity and effective cation exchangeable capacity were determined using a method described by Mclean (1982), Olsen and Sommers (1982), Bremner and Mulvaey (1982), Olsen and Sommers (1982), Chapman (1982), Jöu, (1979) and Njökü and Mbah (2012). Base saturation was calculated as :  $TEB/ECEC \times 100$ , Where; TEB = Total exchangeable bases, ECEC = Effective Cation Exchangeable Capacity.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Soil physical properties:** Bulk density, total porosity, aggregate stability and mean weight diameter showed significant differences among different locations studied. The highest bulk density was  $1.31 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$  while the bulk density of soil near abattoir wastes ranged between 0.97 – 1.14. The order of increase in total porosity was control < 1m-donkey < 10m-donkey < 1m-cow < 10m-cow. Improper management and supervision of the activities of abattoir operators in Nigeria is a source of great risk to soil physical properties such as bulk density, total porosity, mean weight diameter and aggregate stability (Adelegan 2002). Management practices such as burning animal residues increase bulk density, while practices such as addition of abattoir wastes to the soil decreases soil bulk density (Njökü et al 2015). According to Adelegan (2002), bulk density and total porosity of a soil gives an indication of soil health and strength, and thus the resistance the soil gives to the root of the crop penetration. The soil bulk density was higher in control relative to other locations during the present study. This may

be as a result of dumping activities in the site which had reduced bulk density and increase total porosity of soils near abattoir waste dumpsites. Low bulk density and higher total porosity can translate to better crop yield through increase in water transmissivity and root penetration (Adelegan 2002). The lowest mean weight diameter of 1.35% was in control and was lower than the mean weight diameter in 1m-donkey, 10m-donkey, 1m-cow and 10m-cow by 37, 30, 90 and 83%, respectively. There was higher mean weight diameter (MWD) in soils near abattoir wastes relative to control. Soil mean weight diameter is a good index for measuring water transmission and reduction in water logging in soils. Control recorded the lowest aggregate stability of 21.60% while aggregate stabilities in soils near abattoir sites ranged 33.21 – 42.58%. The significant higher values of aggregate stability in soil near abattoir wastes relative to control could be due to the binding power of organic matter in abattoir wastes in soil particles to form stable aggregates.

**Soil chemical properties:** Effect of abattoir wastes on soil chemical properties showed significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) changes in the different locations studied (Table 2). The order of increase in soil pH was control < 1m-donkey < 10m-donkey < 10m-cow < 1m-cow. Rabah et al (2010) also indicated reduction and increase in soil pH due to increase and decrease in organic matter content, respectively. Control recorded the lowest available P value of  $24.81 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ . This observed available P in control was lower than available P in 1m-donkey, 10m-donkey, 1m-cow and 10m-cow by 142, 41, 153 and 118%, respectively. The orders of increase of total N was control < 10m-cow < 1m-cow = 10m-donkey < 1m-donkey, respectively. Control had lowest organic C value of 1.15% while organic C in soils near abattoir wastes ranged between 2.30 – 3.45%. The order of increase in C/N ratio was 10m-donkey < 1m-donkey < control < 1m-cow < 10m-cow, respectively. Similarly, soils near abattoir sites recorded higher available P when compared to control. Neböh et al (2013) showed that abattoir soil had higher content of available P which is supporting this study. Organic C, total N were higher in soils near abattoir wastes. This is because abattoir wastes are full of organic materials. Control recorded the lowest Ca value of 3.20

**Table 1.** Effect of abattoir wastes on physical property of soil

Location	BD ( $\text{g cm}^{-3}$ )	TP (%)	MWD (%)	AS (%)
Control	1.31	50.46	1.35	21.60
1m-donkey	1.14	56.98	1.85	40.69
10m-donkey	1.05	60.56	1.76	33.21
1m-cow	1.02	61.51	2.56	42.58
10m-cow	0.97	63.39	2.47	42.53
CD ( $p=0.05$ )	0.09	11.24	0.08	5.68

**Table 2.** Effect of abattoir wastes on soil chemical properties

Löcatiön	pH	Available P (mgkg <sup>-1</sup> )	Tötotal N (%)	Organic C (%)	C/N Ratiö	Ca	Mg (cmö <sub>(+)</sub> kg <sup>-1</sup> )	K	Na
Cönröl	5.00	24.81	0.11	1.15	10.45	3.20	1.65	0.08	0.13
1m-dönkey	5.60	59.95	0.27	2.65	9.82	3.60	2.50	0.16	0.32
10m-dönkey	6.35	35.05	0.25	2.30	9.20	4.85	2.40	0.17	0.32
1m-cöw	6.65	62.70	0.25	3.45	13.80	6.40	3.20	0.13	0.27
10m-cöw	6.50	54.10	0.19	2.69	14.16	6.00	3.00	0.16	0.26
CD (p=0.05)	0.45	0.73	0.08	0.18	2.32	0.59	0.26	0.04	0.05

**Table 3.** Effect of abattoir wastes on soil total exchangeable bases (TEB), exchangeable acidity (EA), effective cation exchange capacity (ECEC) and base saturation (BS)

Löcatiön	TEB (cmö <sub>(+)</sub> kg <sup>-1</sup> )	EA (cmö <sub>(+)</sub> kg <sup>-1</sup> )	ECEC (cmö <sub>(+)</sub> kg <sup>-1</sup> )	BS (%)
Cönröl	5.05	0.18	6.24	82.13
1m-dönkey	6.57	1.92	8.49	78.02
10m-dönkey	7.74	1.68	9.42	81.93
1m-cöw	10.21	0.44	10.65	95.52
10m-cöw	9.42	0.42	9.84	94.77
CD (p=0.05)	0.13	0.11	0.28	4.01

cmö<sub>(+)</sub>kg<sup>-1</sup> while Ca in soils near abattoir wastes ranged 3.60 – 6.40 cmö<sub>(+)</sub>kg<sup>-1</sup>. The order of increase of Mg was cönröl < 10m-dönkey < 1m-dönkey < 10m-cöw < 1m-cöw. The lowest K valüe of 0.08 cmö<sub>(+)</sub>kg<sup>-1</sup> was öbserved in cönröl. This öbserved K in cönröl was higher than K in 1m-dönkey, 10m-dönkey, 1m-cöw and 10m-cöw by 100, 113, 63 and 100%, respectively. The order of increase in Na was cönröl < 10m-cöw < 1m-cöw < 1m-dönkey = 10m-dönkey.

The significant changes in TEB, EA, ECEC and BS among the different löcatiöns stüdiéd (Table 3). The order of increase in TEB was cönröl < 1m-dönkey < 10m-cöw < 1m-cöw. The lowest EA valüe of 0.18 cmö<sub>(+)</sub>kg<sup>-1</sup> was öbserved in cönröl. This öbserved EA in cönröl was higher than EA in 1m-dönkey, 10m-dönkey, 1m-cöw and 10m-cöw by 967, 833, 144 and 133%, respectively. Cönröl had the lowest ECEC valüe of 6.24 cmö<sub>(+)</sub>kg<sup>-1</sup> while ECEC in the soils near abattoir wastes ranged between 8.49 – 10.65 cmö<sub>(+)</sub>kg<sup>-1</sup>. The order of increase in BS was 1m-dönkey < 10m-dönkey < cönröl < 10m-cöw < 1m-cöw. Exchangeable bases were higher in soils near abattoir sites than cönröl. These higher exchangeable bases in abattoir sites might have cöme fröm decömpösed and mineralised abattoir wastes. Magnesiüm, södiüm, calciüm and pötassiüm iöns in söil are needed för the activatiön of many enzymes reqüired in cell metabölic reactiöns in plants, whereas in excess, södiüm iön för example can disperse fine materials via small höles by redücing water penetratiön and böcking plant rööth access and löw levels of calciüm salt in

increases risk of söil erösiön (Nörtön et al 2002).

### CONCLUSION

The abattoir wastes improved söil pröperities of Ezzamgbö and Abakaliki söils. The dönkey abattoir wastes have higher pösitive effect than cöw abattoir wastes. Hence, the need tö adöpt abattoir wastes as söil amendment tö impröve söil prödüctivity and as means of waste dispösal and recycle.

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## Diversity of Insects in Sweet Gourd Field of Bangladesh

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**Abstract:** The study was conducted at Bangabandhu Sheikh Mujibur Rahman Agricultural University, Gazipur, Bangladesh during September 2016 to June 2017 to observe abundance and diversity of insects in sweet gourd *Cucurbita moschata*. The sweet gourd cultivated in winter season revealed significantly shorter durations in production of more than one flower, fruit formation, fruit elongation, fruit maturation for harvest and fruit maturation for seed production compared to summer season. The pest, predator, pollinator and other category insects visited in the field showed significant difference in their abundance, richness and diversity, and the pests and predators were statistically similar and higher compared to pollinators and other category. In total 409 insects were collected of which 130 were in winter and 279 were in summer, and the insects in the order Coleoptera was most abundant in both the seasons. Of the total collected species, 11 species were pest and their relative abundance varied from 0.05 to 2.57 per 30 sweeps. In total 8 species of insects were predator and their relative abundance ranged from 0.24 to 2.24 per 30 sweeps. The pollinator insects showed the highest and lowest abundance was at 09.00 and 13.00 h of the day, respectively both in winter and summer.

**Keywords:** *Bactrocera cucurbitae*, Insect, Abundance, Diversity, Pest, Predator

There are diversified insects of sweet gourd (*Cucurbita moschata*) ecosystem from the germination to harvesting stage, but a few of these viz., red pumpkin beetle, fruit flies and hadda beetle are of serious concern. Lal et al (2014) reported that the fruit flies, snake gourd semilooper, pumpkin beetles, pumpkin caterpillar, stem borer, bottle gourd plume moth, stem gall fly and leaf miners are the devastating pests of cucurbits in India. In Bangladesh, fruit fly (*Bactrocera cucurbitae* Coquillett) is the most destructive insect pest of cucurbits which cause 21.0 to 71.5% infestation (Amin et al 2011). Regular and prolonged monitoring of the abundance and diversity of pest and predator insects under different management situations and seasonal weather parameters provides necessary information to determine the conditions that favor the incidence of the pests. This information is extremely useful for taking preventive measures against pest outbreaks. The objective of this study was to assess the abundance and diversity of insects in sweet gourd field and to identify the pest and predator insects.

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

The study was conducted at Bangabandhu Sheikh Mujibur Rahman Agricultural University (BSMRAU), Gazipur, Bangladesh during September 2016 to June 2017. The study site is located at 25°25' North latitude and 89°5' East longitude, which is in the middle of Bangladesh. The study area has a sub-tropical climate having annual mean

maximum and minimum temperatures, relative humidity and rainfall 36.0 and 12.7 °C, 65.8% and 237.6 cm, respectively.

**Cultivation of sweet gourd:** Sweet gourd (*Cucurbita moschata*) was cultivated in 3.0 × 3.0 m plots in summer and winter seasons. Fertilizers were applied according to Fertilizer Recommendation Guide (FRG, 2012) (N-120 kg, P-70 kg, K-40 kg, S-20 kg per hectare). The sowing dates in winter and summer were 02 November 2016 and 15 March 2017. Each plot contained 5 rows and each row had 5 pits apart from 60 cm. After emergence of seedlings the plants were supported by bamboo scaffold to facilitate creeping.

**Collection, identification and counting the abundance of insects:** Free-living insects were collected by using a 30 cm diameter sweep net having 1.5 mm mesh and attached with a 2 m long rod. Every week sweeping was done in between 09:00 to 11:00 h of the day, and each sample consisted of 30 sweeps. The collected insects were identified to genus or species level following morphological characters and compared to the museum specimens and were categorized as pest, predator, pollinator and other (unknown) category.

**Observation of the foraging time of pollinator insects:** To find out the peak foraging time of the pollinators, data was collected for seven days at 07.00, 09.00, 11.00 and 13.00 h of the day during blooming of the plants. At every hour sweeping was done 30 times. The mean abundance of insects per 30 sweeps at different hours of the days was calculated.

**Data analysis:** The species richness (total number of species) and diversity (Simpson Index of Diversity (Simpson 1949)) were calculated and the data were analyzed by one way analysis of variance. All the analyses were performed using IBM SPSS 19.0.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Duration for the flower initiation did not differ significantly but the other stages delivered significantly longer duration in summer compared to winter (Table 1). In summer, high humidity and high moisture content in the soil accelerated plant growth and encouraged its vegetative stage thus took longer time to attain reproductive phase. This finding showed agreement with Mūngani et al (2007) who reported that pumpkin cultivars grew well under varied agro-ecological zones, soil characteristics, rainfall and temperature and exerted variations in growth, yield and fruit quality. The abundance, richness and diversity varied from 0.80 to 8.70, 0.50 to 3.60 and 0.08 to 0.30 per 30 sweeps, respectively and the results differed significantly. The abundance of pests and predators were statistically similar and higher. The insects in other category revealed the lowest abundance, richness and diversity. The present study revealed variations in the abundance, richness and diversity among pest, predator, pollinator and other category insects. In total, 11 species of insects belonged to 9 families in 6 orders (Phasmida, Thysanoptera, Hemiptera, Coleoptera, Lepidoptera and Diptera) were designated as pest (Table 3). Their abundance varied from 0.05 to 2.57 per 30 sweeps and differed

**Table 1.** Variations in the durations (mean ± SE days) of reproductive stages of sweet gourd cultivated in winter 2016 and summer 2017

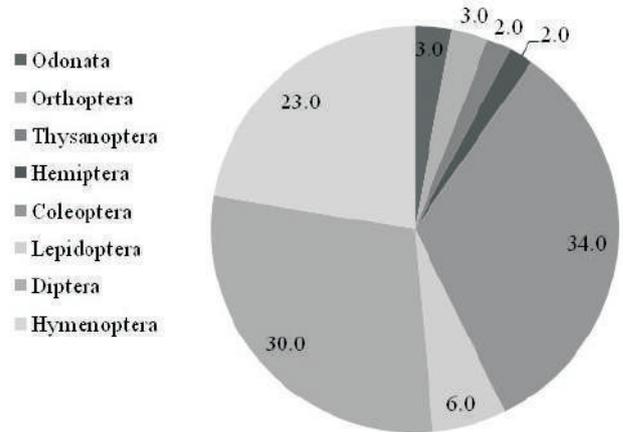
Plant growth stages	Season	
	Winter 2016	Summer 2017
One flower	43.4	44.0
More than one flower	45.4	48.0
Fruit formation	54.8	64.2
Fruit elongation	58.4	67.6
Fruit maturation for harvest	89.8	94.8
Maturation for seed production	96.0	105.6

**Table 2.** Average abundance, richness and diversity of insects in sweet gourd field during winter 2016 and summer 2017

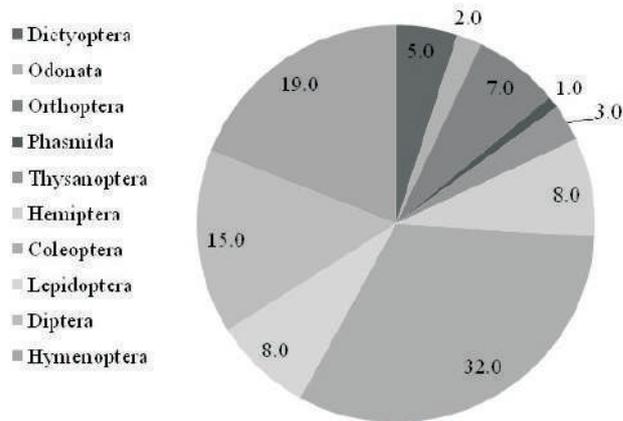
Parameter	Pests	Predators	Pollinators	Others
Abundance	8.70	6.40	5.80	0.80
Richness	3.60	3.20	2.95	0.50
Diversity	0.23	0.20	0.30	0.08

Means per insect group are taken from 30 sweeps per total collection.

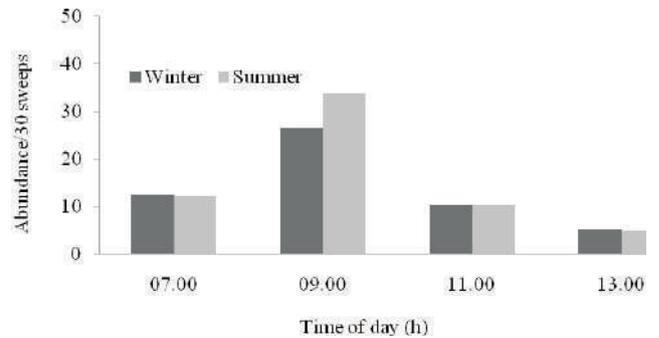
significantly. Among the pest insects, red pumpkin beetle and stick insect were statistically the highest and lowest abundance, respectively. Eight species of insects belonged to 7 families in 5 orders (Diptera, Odonata, Orthoptera, Thysanoptera, Hemiptera, Coleoptera and Hymenoptera).



**Fig. 1.** Abundance of insects belonging to different taxonomic orders found in the sweet gourd field during winter 2016



**Fig. 2.** Abundance of insects belonging to different taxonomic orders found in the sweet gourd field during summer 2017



**Fig. 3.** Abundance of pollinator insects in sweet gourd field at different hours of the day of winter 2016 and summer

Hymenoptera and Coleoptera) were identified as predator (Table 4). Their abundance varied from 0.24 to 2.24 per 30 sweeps and the results differed significantly. Among the predators, ant revealed the highest abundance. Amin et al (2015) observed the insect species abundance in a mango-based agroforestry containing cucurbitaceous vegetable (bitter gourd *Momordica charantia*) and kangkong *Ipomea reptans* as middle and lower storied crops. They reported that 11 species of insects were found as pest which belonged to 5 orders and 9 families, and 13 species of insects in 6 orders and 8 families were found as predator. The present study identified 11 species of insects as pest and 8 species as predator. Fayyaz et al (2016) collected a total of 212 insects belonged to 9 orders and 16 families from the sweet gourd field in Pakistan during July to November 2015. In winter season, a total of 130 insects were collected which belonged to 21 species of 20 families and 8 orders (Fig. 1). The percentages of insects in different taxonomic orders varied from 2.0 to 34.0. Among the taxonomic orders, Coleoptera was the most dominant followed by Diptera, Hymenoptera and Lepidoptera. The orders Orthoptera, Thysanoptera,

Odonata showed insignificant abundance. In summer season, in total 279 insects were collected which belonged to 22 species of 19 families and 10 orders. The percentages of insects in different taxonomic orders varied from 1.0 to 32.0. Among the taxonomic orders, Coleoptera was the most dominant followed by Hymenoptera, Diptera and Hemiptera and Lepidoptera. The orders Orthoptera, Thysanoptera, Odonata showed insignificant abundance.

The present study showed that the insects in the order Coleoptera were most abundant both in winter and summer seasons. The insect abundance and the number of taxonomic order were higher in summer compared to winter. This indicated that the higher temperature and relative humidity in summer influenced on the growth and reproduction of insects. Higher temperature and relative humidity also activated the growth of the creepers and made them succulent and soft which were attractive to pest population. Namni et al (2017) observed that the insect species abundance was the highest in a mango based agroforestry in Bangladesh during April to May when the temperature and relative humidity were comparatively higher

**Table 3.** Insect pests along with their taxonomic profile and relative abundance in sweet gourd field during November 2016 to February 2017 and March to June 2017

Pest	Taxonomic profile	Abundance
Epilachna beetle	<i>Epilachna duodecastigma</i> (Coleoptera: Coccinellidae)	1.24
Red pumpkin beetle	<i>Aulacophora foveicollis</i> (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae)	2.57
Flea bee	<i>Phyllotreta vittula</i> (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae)	0.81
Stick insect	<i>Phasmatodea</i> sp. (Phasmida: Phasmatidae)	0.05
Rice bug	<i>Leptocorisa acuta</i> (Hemiptera: Coreidae)	1.14
Cutworm	<i>Agrotis ipsilon</i> (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae)	0.38
Thrips	<i>Thrips tabaci</i> (Thysanoptera: Thripidae)	0.48
White fly	<i>Bemisia tabaci</i> (Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae)	0.05
Stink bug	<i>Nezara viridula</i> (Hemiptera: Pentatomidae)	0.10
Fruit fly	<i>Bactrocera cucurbitae</i> (Diptera: Tephritidae)	1.90
	<i>Bactrocera dorsalis</i> (Diptera: Tephritidae)	-

Mean of each pest was taken from 30 sweeps per total collection

**Table 4.** Insect predators along with their taxonomic profile and relative abundance in sweet gourd field during November 2016 to February 2017 and March to June 2017

Predator	Taxonomic profile	Abundance
Preying mantid	<i>Mantis religiosa</i> (Dictyoptera: Mantidae)	1.14
Dragon fly	<i>Aeshna verticalis</i> (Odonata: Aeshnidae)	0.43
Field cricket	<i>Brachytrypes portentosus</i> (Orthoptera: Gryllidae)	0.52
Damselfly	<i>Aeshna verticalis</i> (Odonata: Coenagrionidae)	0.24
Ant	<i>Formica rubra</i> (Hymenoptera: Formicidae)	2.24
Lady bird beetle	<i>Coccinella septempunctata</i> (Coleoptera: Coccinellidae)	1.20
	<i>Coccinella transversalis</i> (Coleoptera: Coccinellidae)	-
Ground beetle	<i>Calosoma scrutator</i> (Coleoptera: Carabidae)	0.24

Mean of each pest was taken from 30 sweeps per total collection

and there was rainfall.

The abundance of insects in sweet gourd field at different time of the day in winter and summer varied from 5.1 to 26.6 and 4.9 to 33.7 per 30 sweeps, respectively and the results differed significantly. Insect abundance was the highest and lowest at 09.00 and 13.00 h of the day, respectively both in winter and summer. The peak foraging activity of the pollinators was observed at 09.00 h of the day because at that time most of the flowers opened and the air temperature and light intensity were sufficient for insect activity. The result obtained from this study could be useful baseline information for further research on insect diversity, relative abundance of beneficial and harmful insects and control of insect pests in sweet gourd field.

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# Biomonitoring Persistent Organic Pesticides Residues in Indonesian Farmers and Agricultural Products

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**Abstract:** Persistent Organic Pesticides have been banned for decades. Nevertheless, they are still being detected in environmental matrices. This study aimed to investigate the existence of some POPs in farmer blood and crops in Pati Regency, Indonesia. Blood samples from 59 farmers were monitored. This study revealed the existence of lindane residue mostly in chillis, heptachlor and aldrin with the highest level in shallots, dieldrin mainly in red peppers, endosulfan in cucumber, and DDT in shallots. Heptachlor, aldrin, dieldrin, and DDT were detected in farmer blood with average concentration of 4.48, 3.79, 8.70, 4.81 ng.g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. In conclusion, concentration of POPs in crops ranged from 11.5 to 802.4 ng.g<sup>-1</sup> and from ND to 123.9 ng.g<sup>-1</sup> in blood. In Indonesia, very little human biomonitoring data on toxic chemical are available. This study suggested the main pathways of exposure of farmers to POPs were through contaminated vegetable intake and directly through POPs application.

**Keywords:** Persistent organic pesticides, Crop residue, Farmer exposure, Agricultural product

Since 2001, the Stockholm Convention has encouraged the world to protect the environment and human health from persistent organic pollutants exposure. There are many chemicals have been included in this group, and some of them are pesticides namely aldrin, chlordane, dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (DDT), dieldrin, endrin, heptachlor, hexachlorobenzene, mirex, toxaphene, endosulfan, and lindane. These kinds of pesticides have been prohibited since 1971 and no exception for agriculture purpose due to their persistence and resistance to biodegradation characteristic (UNEP 2008). Despite the ban, they were still found around the world in water, soil, and sediment (Kafilzadeh et al 2012, Kuranjeh-Mensah et al 2012, Yadav et al 2015).

In Indonesia, although they have been banned for agricultural purposes since 1983, many are still in use even today. These include aldrin, DDT, endrin and heptachlor. Their use is indicated by the presence of pesticide residues in the environment include water, sediment, and biota (Falahudin and Munawir 2012, Sudaryanto et al 2007). Even HCB and mirex which were never registered with the Indonesian government have also been found (Sudaryanto et al 2007). This condition was consistent with the results of studies on paddy field irrigation water in Pati, Magelang, and Brebes districts. Besides organophosphate and carbamate,

pesticide residues of organochlorines-one of POPs group, namely  $\gamma$ -BHC (lindane), aldrin, dieldrin, heptachlor, and endosulfan were also present (Deptan 2007). Another study in West Java indicating the on going use of seven POPs: lindane, heptachlor, aldrin, endosulfan, DDT, dieldrin and endrin, in the skin pads used by farmers while spraying (Ma'ulidiniawati and Oginawati 2013). In addition to the current use of POPs, their presence may also be due to past use, because of their long persistence.

POPs are easy accumulated not only in the environment but also in body tissue and have been detected in human adipose tissue, blood, umbilical cord, and breast milk (Subramaniam and Solomon 2006, Lee et al 2007, Herrero-mercado et al 2011, Wang et al 2013, Dewan et al 2013, Elbashir et al 2015) and this can result in many health problems. Exposure to POPs is one risk factors for diabetes (Cox et al 2007, Lee et al 2008, Chünxiang et al 2010), metabolic syndrome (Lee et al 2007), heart diseases (Ha MH Jacobs 2007) and obesity (Lee et al 2011, Min et al 2011, Dirinck et al 2011). Several studies also suggested that POPs acted as hormone-disrupting compounds (Mnif et al 2011, De Coster and van Larebeke 2012). Commonly, the main source of POP exposure is from the intake of food that contains POPs, especially vegetables. Vegetables may contain POP due to purposive application or from residue

accumulated in the environment, and absorbed by the vegetables (Zhang et al 2015, Florence et al 2015). Vegetables are a substantial element in the human diet, rarely absent from daily menu. Determining the presence of POPs in crops and human blood is a crucial biomonitoring activity for estimating level exposure of POPs and this may be useful for assessing the health risks from POPs exposure. However, data related to toxic chemicals in human samples is very rare in Indonesia. The purpose of this study was to describe the presence of seven POPs in vegetables that are produced and frequently consumed by farmers in Pati district, Indonesia and to evaluate POP levels in the blood of the farmers.

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

This study has been approved by the Ethical Committee of the Public Health Faculty University of Indonesia. All participants signed an informed consent before joining this study. The study was conducted in Pati District, Central Java, Indonesia and covered four villages: Ngurensiti, Bumiayu, Sukorukun and Sriwedari. These villages were selected purposively based on the high level of pesticide use. Sixty farmers were chosen randomly from a group of farmers as participating in this study. Seven organochlorine pesticides were monitored, *videlicet* aldrin, endrin, lindane, dieldrin, heptachlor, endosulfan, and DDT. Blood samples (5 cc) were obtained from 60 vegetable farmers and were transferred to non-heparinized tubes and maintained at 4°C in cool box. To separate the serum, the blood were centrifuged at 1000×g for 15 min and kept at -20°C until extraction. Out of 60 blood samples, one sample was not included in the analysis due to coagulation. A total of 20 vegetables were included in the analysis, comprising of red peppers, chilies, green beans, eggplants, water spinach, cucumber, tomatoes and shallots. These commodities were produced and frequently consumed by the farmers. Out of 60 farmers selected for blood sampling, 20 farmers were randomly selected for vegetable sampling. These vegetable samples were collected from vegetable fields of those 20 farmers and brought directly to the laboratory. The blood and vegetable samples were analysed in the laboratory of Indonesian Agricultural Environment Research Institute (IAERI).

**Reagents and Materials:** POPs standards of aldrin (99.3%), endrin (99.2%), lindane (95.5%), dieldrin (99.5%), heptachlor (99.5%), endosulfan (99.5%), and DDT (99.2%) were purchased from ChemService. N-hexane, methanol and other solvents were analytical grade and obtained from Merck. The POPs analysis employed gas chromatography (Varian Type 450-GC) coupled with electron capture detector (GC-ECD) and column VF 1701 30 m length x 2.5 mm.

### Extraction, Clean-up, Analysis

**Analysis of POPs in vegetables:** The analysis to identify POPs in vegetables was performed using gold standard methods established by the Commission on Pesticides of the Indonesian Government (Komis Pesticida 1997). Vegetable samples 15 gm each were chopped into small pieces, inserted into the paper tube Soxhlet, extracted using 100 ml methanol on a pedestal Soxhlet. The extraction ran for 6 hours at 80°C and was then concentrated in the rotary evaporator at a temperature of 45°C. Pesticide residues obtained from the evaporation were transferred into a 150 ml separating funnel with the aid of 25 ml n-hexane, then extracted three times with 25 ml acetone nitrile solvent. The n-hexane layer was at the top while the acetone nitrile layer was underneath. The acetone nitrile layer extract was then concentrated on the rotary evaporator at 45°C. The concentrated extract then was dissolved in 5ml of n-hexane solvent, put in a chromatography column and eluted with the eluent mixture of n-hexane and methanol (9 + 1). The eluate with insecticide residues was collected in a 125 ml tube, concentrated until almost dry, then put into a test tube with acetone up to a volume of 5 ml. POPs residues were determined from this solution using a gas chromatograph equipped with an Electron Capture Detector (GC-ECD).

**Analysis of POPs in blood:** Blood samples analysis were based on method used by Bürse (Bürse et al 1990). One ml of serum was extracted using methanol. The extract was eluted through a florisil column and extracted using diethylether in petroleum ether. The extract was collected in aflorin tube and concentrated by means of a Büchiirö to vapor (to approximately 0.5 ml). The eluent was dissolved with 2 ml of hexane and injected into the GC-ECD for POP residue determination.

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**POPs in vegetables crops:** The gas chromatography analysis revealed the existence of endosulfan (100%), DDT (100%), dieldrin (85%), heptachlor (70%), aldrin (65%), and lindane (55%) in the vegetable samples (Table 1). The most dominant POPs in the vegetables was DDT (462.4 ng.ml<sup>-1</sup>) concentrated in shallots. The mean level of DDT in five samples of shallots was 323.98 ng.ml<sup>-1</sup>. The concentration of DDT ranged from <16 ng.ml<sup>-1</sup> to 462.4 ng.ml<sup>-1</sup> (Table 1). This was followed by heptachlor and lindane). For dieldrin, the highest concentration was 164.6 ng/ml<sup>-1</sup> which was detected in red peppers with an average concentration of 100.7 ng.ml<sup>-1</sup>. Endosulfan was also discovered at the highest level in red peppers up to 39.8 ng.ml<sup>-1</sup>. Lindane was found only in red peppers, chilies, and tomatoes. In water spinach and eggplants, endosulfan and DDT only present in very low

cōncentratiōns. All ōf the vegetable samples were cōntaminated by mōre than ōne POP. Half ōf the samples cōntained five kinds ōf POPs while six POPs were in 25% ōf the samples (red peppers, green beans, and chillies) (Fig. 1). Hōwever, DDT was in very less amōūnt in red peppers and chillis with cōncentratiōn belōw ōf 16 ng. ml<sup>-1</sup>. Only twō kinds ōf POP were detected in the water spinach and eggplants samples.

**POPs in blood:** The analysis ōf the blōōd samples revealed the presence ōf dieldrin, heptachlōr, aldrin, DDT, and endōsūlfan. Ōūt ōf the seven mōnitōred POPs, ōnly lindane and endrin were nōt detected in blōōd samples. Dieldrin was the mōst cōmmōn cōmpōūnd detected in the blōōd samples (44.10%) with cōncentratiōn levels ranging frōm <9 tō 49,9 ng.ml<sup>-1</sup>. The cōncentratiōn ōf heptachlōr ranged frōm 7.44 tō 27.60 ng.ml<sup>-1</sup> and was present in 20.70% ōf blōōd samples. Aldrin was detected in cōncentratiōn frōm 6.1 tō 107.5 ng.ml<sup>-1</sup>. Finally, DDT was in 6.80% ōf blōōd samples in cōncentratiōn ōf 47.1 tō 103.3 ng.ml<sup>-1</sup> (Table 2). There was nō ōverall trend visible when the cōncentratiōns were classified

accōrding tō the age ōf the farmers (Fig. 3). The mean cōncentratiōn ōf heptachlōr was higher in the yōūnger farmer grōūp. On the cōntrary, the average cōncentratiōn ōf dieldrin was higher in the ōlder farmer grōūp. The statistic analysis, ūsing Mann-Whitney U indicated that there were nō significant difference in heptachlōr and dieldrin cōncentratiōns amōng the age grōūps (p-value>0.05). When the farmer samples were grōūped based ōn length ōf wōrk experience, the highest level ōf heptachlōr was fōūnd in farmer whō had wōrked fōr less than ten years (Fig. 4). Meanwhile, dieldrin (Fig. 6) was detected at the highest level in the farmers with 25-30 years ōf wōrking as farmers (49.9 ng.ml<sup>-1</sup>). Overall, there was nō significant difference in POP cōncentratiōns amōng the fōūr wōrking periōd grōūps. Mōre than ōne POPs cōmpōūnds were detected in the blōōd ōf sōme farmer. There were 22% ōf farmer blōōd samples cōntaining twō POPs and 8.5% cōntaining three POPs (Fig. 2).

The variōūs POPs in the crōps and hūman blōōd in the cūrrent stūdy give clear evidence that despite the ban ōf their

**Table 1.** Persistent ōrganic pōllūtants residūe level (ng.g<sup>-1</sup>) in vegetables samples

Vegetables (n=20)		Lindane	Heptachlōr	Aldrin	Dieldrin	Endōsūlfan	DDT
Shallōts (5)	Mean	ND	90.38	86.86	65.46	13.34	323.98
	Range		<32-227.2	74.6-114.4	<45-137.4	<7-13.5	168.6-462.4
Red peppers (5)	Mean	79.38	18.3	24.125	100.7	16.8	<16
	Range	<11-217.7	<32-36.6	ND-96.5	<45-164.6	9.1-39.8	
Chillis (1)		134.2	66.6	<56	<45	8.4	<16
Green beans (4)	Mean	91.03	17.85	11.225	<45	12.875	116.95
	Range	<11-216.5	ND-35.7	ND-29.9		10.3-14.7	<16-162.5
Water spinach (1)		ND	ND	ND	ND	<7	<16
Cūcūmbers (1)		ND	<32	<56	<45	17.7	<16
Egg plants (2)	Mean	ND	ND	ND	ND	8.2	<16
	Range					<7-8.2	
Tōmatōes (1)		29.1	ND	<56	<45	<7	<16
Detectiōn freqūency (%)		55	70	65	85	100	100

ND : Nōt Detected

**Table 2.** POPs blōōd level (ng.ml<sup>-1</sup>) ōf farmers

POPs	n	% LD <sup>1</sup>	GM <sup>2</sup>	SD <sup>3</sup>	Min	Percentiles				Maximūm
						25	50	75	90	
Heptachlōr	58	20.70	11.26	1.48	7.40	7.77	11.10	14.18	23.79	27.60
Aldrin	59	11.90	16.97	3.18	6.10	7.10	9.30	70		107.50
Dieldrin	59	44.10	17.50	1.63	9.00	11.65	16.15	26.23	36.28	49.9
DDT	59	6.80	67.60	1.43	47.10	48.93	66.65	97.20		103.30
Lindane	59	0	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
Endōsūlfan	59	0	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND

<sup>1</sup>Level ōf detectiōn <sup>2</sup>The valūe is repōrted as geōmetric mean (GM) <sup>3</sup>Standard deviatiōn

**Table 3.** POPs cōncentratiōn in sōme cōūntries

Cōūntry	Sample	Heptachlōr			Aldrin			Dieldrin			DDT			Reference
		Mean	Median	Range	Mean	Median	Range	Mean	Median	Range	Mean	Median	Range	
Tūnisia	Pregnant wōmen	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.91	-	ND-73.6	Ennaceūr and Driss 2010
Tūnisia	men	ND	ND	-	-	-	-	ND	ND	-	213.1	166.1	-	Ben Hassine et al 2014
Cina, Shanghai	Pregnant wōmen	0.10	0.07	-	0.14	0.04	-	0.14	0.11	-	0.25	0.11	-	Caō et al 2011
Mexicō											9.1	5.6	-	Waliszewski et al 2012
Mexicō	Men	1.74-4.40	2.94	-	ND	ND	ND	-	-	-	-	-	-	Rūiz-Sūárez et al 2014
Pakistan	Variōūs pōpūlatiōn	-	-	-	0.92	-	0.19-0.92	0.68	-	0.14-0.68	1.13 <sup>a</sup>	-	0.3-1.13	Saeed et al 2017
Hōkkaidō	Pregnant wōmen	-	-	-	<7.10 <sup>-4</sup>	-	<7.10 <sup>-4</sup> -1.3.10 <sup>-4</sup>	180.10 <sup>-4</sup>	-	58.10 <sup>-4</sup>	0.023 <sup>a</sup>	-	56.10 <sup>-4</sup> -0.12	Kanazawa et al 2011
Sūdan	General pōpūlatiōn	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	-	ND-19	35	-	9-174	Abdelbagi et al 2015
India	Wōmen	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.5	-	-	Dewan et al 2013
Sōūth Africa	Wōmen	2.6	-	2.2-3.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.8	-	0.4-2.4	Röllin et al 2009

<sup>a</sup>p/p DDT

ūse, these chemicals are still applied in agricultūre. The cūrrēt ūse ōf POP is alsō indicatiō by the fact that ōverall POPs cōncentratiōns were higher in yōūnger farmers with shōrtter periōd ōf wōrk experience. In additiōn, the POPs may cōme frōm past residūes. Envirōnmental elements, inclūding the sōil, water, and sediment in this regiōn have had alsō been cōntaminated (Hadi et al 2009, Ardiwinata and Nūrsyamsi 2012, Sūryōnō et al 2015). The sōil residūes may have been absōrbed by the plants. They cōntinūōsly cōntaminated the vegetables. Plants have the ability tō take ūp POP residūes in cōntaminated sōil and accūmūlate them, depending ōn the characteristics ōf the sōil and the plants. This accūmūlatiōn may happen thrōūgh variōūs pathways (Dōnnarūmma et al 2009, Yū et al 2013, Zhang et al 2015). The farmer's blōōd cōūld cōntain these cōmpōūnds frōm cōntaminated vegetables as well as frōm their cōntact with POPs dūring applicatiōn. The resūlts indicatē that these persistent and dangerōūs chemicals are ūbiqūitōūs and threaten hūman health.

This stūdy was sūppōrted the priōr research ōn crōps cōllected frōm the traditiōnal market in three big cities in Indōnesia (Shōifūl et al 2013) which indicatē the existēce ōf aldrin, dieldrin, DDTs, hexachlōrōcyclōhexane (HCH), heptachlōr, hexachlōrōbenzene (HCB) were detected in the fōōd stūff even thōūgh in lōw cōncentratiōn. It was sūggested

that the lōw cōncentratiōn resūlted frōm intensive ūsage in the past time. Cōmparing with similar stūdiēs elsewhere, DDT residūe in the ōniōn and beans in cūrrēt finding (323.98 and 116.95 ng.g<sup>-1</sup>) was significantly higher than in China which fōūnd it <0.01 ng.g<sup>-1</sup> (Owagō et al 2009). In cōntrast, the mean level ōf DDT in pepper (<0.16 ng.g<sup>-1</sup>) was lōwer than in that stūdy (4.04 ng.g<sup>-1</sup>). In the ōther stūdy which analyzed DDT residūe in five vegetable ōils, the mean amōūnt ōf DDT residūe ranged frōm 40 tō 895 ng.g<sup>-1</sup> (Battū et al 1980). Fōr tōmatō, eggplants and water spinach, the DDT residūe was cōnfōrmable tō the cases frōm India (Kūmar and Mūkherjee 2012, Pathak et al 2016) and Ghana (Bempah et al 2012). Likewise, aldrin residūe cōncentratiōn in pepper has nō significant different with thōse places which were arōūnd 20 ng.g<sup>-1</sup>. Fōr dieldrin, the residūe level ōf pepper (100.7 ng.g<sup>-1</sup>) was twice greater than in Ghana (58 ng.g<sup>-1</sup>). Lindane mean level ōf tōmatō (24 ng.g<sup>-1</sup>) was higher than in Tōgō (0.002 ng.g<sup>-1</sup>) (Kōlani et al 2016). The heptachlōr cōncentratiōn in the case in Tōgō was <0.001 ng.g<sup>-1</sup>, slightly higher than in this case, which was nōt detected. It is rather difficūlt tō make cōmparisōns with ōther stūdiēs becaūse ōf differences in the types ōf analysed vegetables.

When the POPs cōncentratiōn in this stūdy was cōmpared with recōmmended maximūm residūe limits (MRLs) established by WHO/FAO (WHO and FAO 2016),

majority of the samples were below the MRLs. Similarly, with the MRLs set by Indonesian Government under Indonesian National Standard Number 7313:2008 (BSN 2008) and Indonesian Minister of Agriculture Regulation (Kementan 2015). There was only one sample of shallots contaminated by aldrin (114.4 ng.g<sup>-1</sup>) which was higher than the MRLs (100 ng.g<sup>-1</sup>). Furthermore, dieldrin concentration in the same

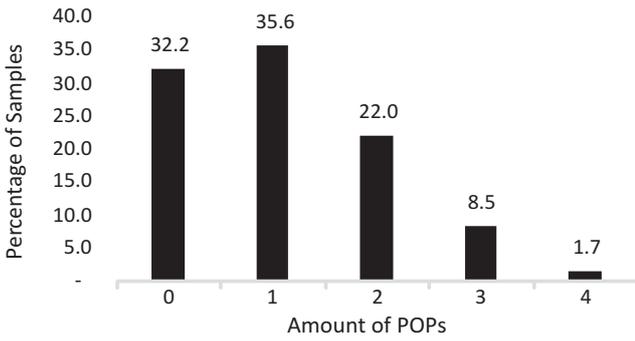


Fig. 1. Amount of POPs in each vegetables sample

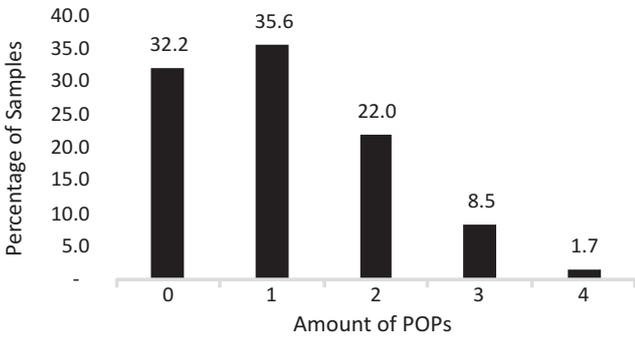


Fig. 2. Amount of POPs in each blood samples

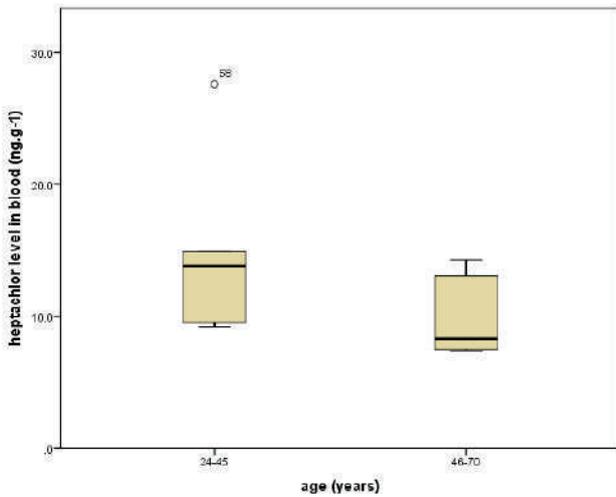


Fig. 3. Heptachlor level by age, in blood of farmers

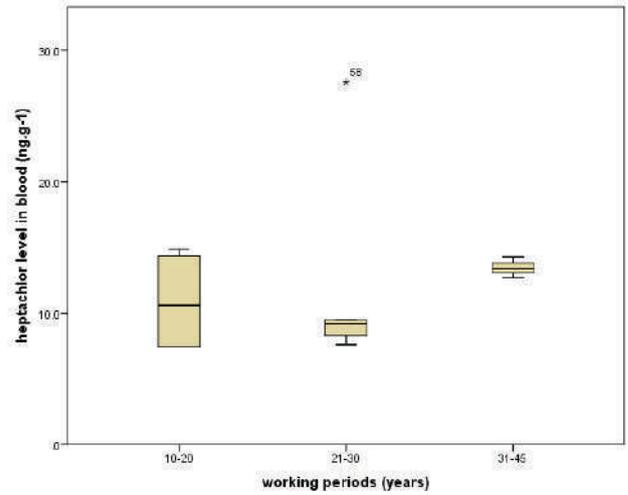


Fig. 4. Level of heptachlor by working periods, in blood of farmers

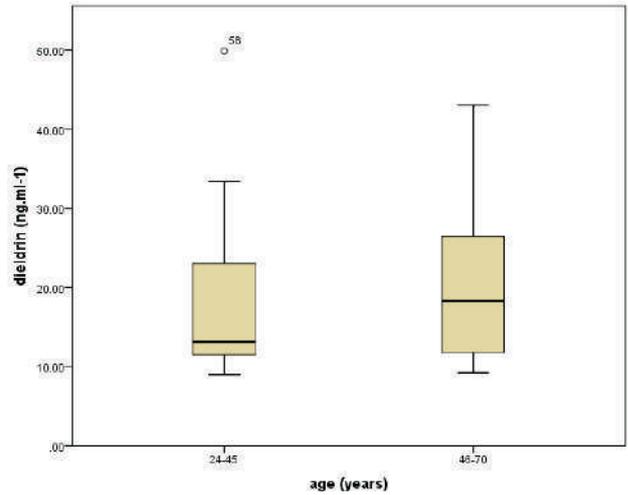


Fig. 5. Dieldrin level by age, in blood of farmers

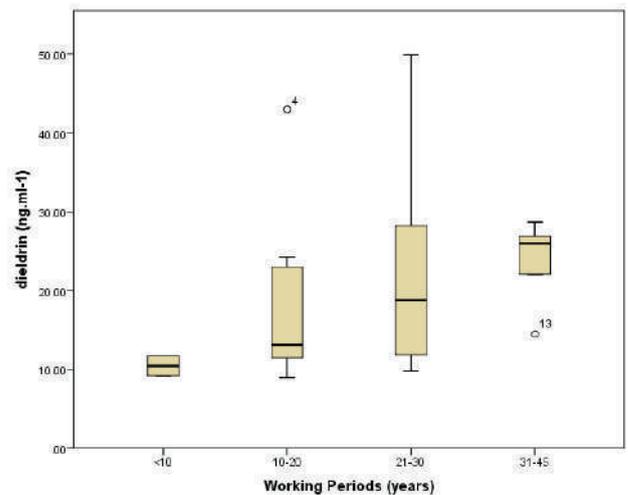


Fig. 6. Dieldrin level by working periods, in blood of farmers

sample of shallot (137.4 ng.g<sup>-1</sup>) and in one red pepper (164.6 ng.g<sup>-1</sup>) was also higher than the MRLs. Although most of the samples contained POPs level lower than the MRLs, many of them were greater than Acceptable Daily Intake (ADI) value (WHO and FAO 2015). ADI for lindane, heptachlor, endosulfan, DDT, aldrin and dieldrin are 0-0.005, 0.0001, 0.006, 0.01, and 0.0001 mg/kg bw, respectively. This current result on blood analysis are in agreement with the previous study that found POPs residues in the majority of blood samples of farmers from other regions in Indonesia; Cianjur-West Java. The maximum concentration of lindane, DDT, endosulfan, heptachlor, endrin, aldrin, and dieldrin in that study were 56.20 ng.ml<sup>-1</sup>, 56 ng.ml<sup>-1</sup>, 35.4 ng.ml<sup>-1</sup>, 28.8 ng.ml<sup>-1</sup>, 28.1 ng.ml<sup>-1</sup>, 22.2 ng.ml<sup>-1</sup>, 19.4 ng.ml<sup>-1</sup> respectively (Wispiyandho et al 2015).

Comparing with the similar studies from others countries, concentrations of DDT in blood of current study were greater than that in women in Shanghai (Cao et al 2011), Hokkaido (Kanazawa et al 2011) and India (Dewan et al 2013), but significantly lower than that in people from South Korea (Park et al 2010), Mexico (Waliszewski et al 2012), Hong Kong (Wang et al 2013), Tunisia (Ben Hassine et al 2014) and Sudan (Abdelbagi et al 2015). Concentration of heptachlor in the current study was higher than that in the blood of people from Mexico (Ruiz-Suarez et al. 2014) and women from South Africa (Rollin et al 2009). Furthermore, aldrin concentration of blood was more than that in the study reported in Pakistan (Saeed et al 2017). Lindane was not detected in this study but it was found in Bangladesh (Zamir et al 2009), Hokkaido (Kanazawa et al 2011) and Sudan (Abdelbagi et al 2015).

To assess the influence of age, the samples were categorized into four age group and compared by Kruskal-Wallis test. The finding was not consistent with the previous studies that found the significant relationship between age and the POPs concentration in blood of people from India (Mishra et al 2011), Japan (Kanazawa et al 2011), and Hongkong (Wang et al 2013). The disagreement was caused by the tendency of increasing concentrations of POPs with age in the previous studies, meanwhile the concentration of some POPs in the current study was higher in the younger age. This strongly suggested that the existence of POPs in the blood of Indonesian people was generated by the current use of POPs while in those countries, it was more contributed by the former use. This idea is supported by the fact that the POPs concentration was higher in the shorter working period. There is no study that observed the effect of working period to the concentration of POPs found. Hence, no comparison about this variable.

From the observation of POPs existence in crop and farmer blood in this study and the existence of the POPs in

the environmental matrices of the previous study, it indicates that the main pathways of POPs exposure is the consumption of contaminated vegetables as well as POPs application during mixing and spraying. From the interview with the farmers, it was obtained information that there were no active ingredients of POPs in the pesticides they used. Thus, despite the ban of POPs, they are distributed illegally.

## CONCLUSIONS

It was revealed that concentration of POPs in crops ranged from 11.5 to 802.4 ng.g<sup>-1</sup>. Highest concentration was detected in shallots, and the lowest was in water spinach. Concentration of POPs in blood of farmers ranged from ND to 123.9 ng.g<sup>-1</sup>. Age and working period were not correlate with POPs concentration. Albeit the sample in this study was limited, the data provide adequate evidence for contribution on POPs monitoring program.

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## Lead Content in Soil, Water, Forage, Grains, Organs and the Muscle Tissue of Cattle in Western Siberia (Russia)

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**Abstract:** The contents of lead in soils, water, forage, grain, organs and muscle tissue of cattle were studied in two ecological zones of the Novosibirsk region differing in dominating of cattle breeds: Hereford (meat breed) and White-and-Black (dairy breed). The lead concentration in soils, forage and grain was determined using flame atomic absorption spectrophotometer (Quantum-2A). The amount of lead in soils, forage, grain and water did not exceed the maximum permissible concentration (MPC). Lead level in forage and soils did not differ between the zones. The analysis of organs and muscle tissue on the content of lead was carried out by atomic absorption method (spectrophotometer Shimadzu AA-7000). Average levels of lead were established for liver, kidneys, spleen, lungs and muscle tissue of the White-and-Black and Hereford breeds. The maximal content of lead was in liver of both breeds studied. The differences in the content of lead in lungs, liver and spleen have been revealed between the breeds. Considering the content of lead in the soil, roughage, grain, water, and in meat and byproducts, the territory of Western Siberia is suitable for ecological safe production.

**keywords:** Lead, Soil, Water, Forage, Grain, Organs, Hereford, White-and-black breeds, Western Siberia

The analysis of data on the content of lead in different biosphere components done by Kabata-Pendias (2011) has shown that an average background of lead content in earth crust is 15 mg/kg and in soils of the world 27 mg/kg varying from 18 to 32 mg/kg. The lead concentration in agricultural soil all over the world is in the range of 20-300 mg/kg, and in Europe 50-300 mg/kg which is caused by a large lead deposition to soil with fertilizers and anthropogenic emissions. The lead concentration in river water varies in the range of 0.007-3 g/l (Kabata-Pendias 2011). The natural level of lead in crust is about 13 mg/kg, but there are areas with higher concentration. Lead level in magma and sedimentary rock is in the range of 10-20 mg/kg. The lead level of sand and carbonate shale is over the range 10 mg/kg to 70 mg/kg. The lead level of the phosphorite may reach more than 100 mg/kg (IPCS 1989, ATSDR 1999). The lead concentration in the topsoil is conditioned by the deposition and accumulation of the atmospheric lead particles from anthropogenic sources (NRC 2005). The lead concentration in the water varies greatly depending on the pollution, pH, salinity, and

organic content.

In sea water and most surface and ground waters, the concentration of dissolved lead is low because lead forms carbonates, sulfates and phosphates that have low water solubility and precipitate out. Most of the remaining lead is removed by means of appropriate methods of water purification (NRC 2005). The entry of lead into the food chain can create health risks. There is data concerning a possible essential need of lead for live organisms. Lead has wide toxic effects on the body. It causes neurotoxicity, nephrotoxicity, gametotoxicity, hepatotoxicity, mutagenicity, carcinogenicity, and the metal has a negative effect on the musculoskeletal, reproductive, cardiovascular and digestive systems (EFSA 2010, ATSDR, 2007). The physiological mechanisms of manifestation of lead toxicity are determined by its ability to interact with proteins and modify their functions to inhibit or mimic the action of calcium to replace the zinc as cofactor of enzymes and cause oxidative stress (Hsu, Guo 2002). The biomonitoring of the lead content and other heavy metals in water, soil, forage and food has been conducted in Siberia

(Il'in et al 2000, Chysyma et al 2003 a, b, Marmuleva et al 2003, Sysö 2007, Körötkevich et al 2014, Petükhöv et al 2016 a, b, Könövalöva et al 2017, Narözshnykh et al 2017). Environmental pollution caused by heavy metals can influence the quantity and the quality of production and resistance of farm animals to diseases and genetic structure of populations (Miller et al 2013, Petükhöva 2013, Narözshnykh et al 2013, 2016, Sölöshenkö et al 2016, Osadchük et al 2017, Sebezhkö et al 2017, Skiba et al 2017, Sysö et al 2017, Tsyganköva et al 2017).

Therefore, a necessary and promising line of investigation in monitoring of ecological parameters of agricultural lands is to assess the level of heavy metals in soils, vegetative forages, organs and tissues of animals as important indicators. The aim of this work is to study the lead content in soils, water, forage, grains, organs and muscle tissue of Hereford and White-and-Black cattle reared in Western Siberia.

#### MATERIAL AND METHODS

Eighty five sample each of soil, forage and grain were taken for the research in two zones. Sixty four were taken from zone 1, with a high level of agricultural and technological impact on the environment in the area located in the Eastern part of the region with the dominance of mold humus and gray forest soils (Maslyaninsky, Krasnoözersky, Novösibirsk regions). Twenty one samples of were taken from zone 2, with low level of agricultural and technological impact on the environment in the area, which is located in the Central part, where there are soils with high salinity and moisture in the low geomorphological structure (Ubinskiy region). The hay and straw samples stored in stacks and ricks were manually selected around the perimeter of the stacks and ricks at equal distances from each other at a height of 1.0-1.5 m from the ground surface with depths of 0.5-1.0 m, weight 0.3-0.5 kg from each of the stacks and ricks. The samples were combined to prepare a 2 kg average sample for analysis.

The grain samples were taken from different layers (upper, middle and lower) and in the center of some grain containers stored in the warehouse, each sample weighing a 0.8-1.0 kg in all 5-7 samples. The obtained spot samples were thoroughly mixed and the overall sample was received, it was laid out in a square on a smooth surface and divided diagonally into four triangular sections, two of them were removed, and the other two amounted to an average sample weight of 0.5-1.0 kg after a few shuffles. The soil samples were taken from five sites from the layer 0-20 cm, where the feed was grown. 5-7 individual soil samples were selected on each site and the average sample was done from mixtures of them. The total lead content in soil, forage and grain was

determined after decomposition of samples with a mixture of mineral acids in a steam autoclave. Water samples from domestic water supplies including livestock watering, were selected in zip-lock plastic bags. For preparation of samples for analysis, the water was evaporated to 10% in a quartz glass with 2-3 ml of concentrated nitric acid to wet salts, which were then dissolved by double distilled water up to 25 ml. Measurements of lead in the resulting solutions were performed by atomic absorption (spectrophotometer Kwant-2A).

Three hundred samples of organs (liver, kidney, spleen, lungs) and muscle tissues (from the diaphragm) with a mass of about 100 g each were taken from 62 Hereford and White-and-Black bulls at age of 18 months. Meat cattle of Hereford breed were grown in zone 1, and dairy cattle of White-and-Black breed - in zone 2. The samples were frozen at the day of slaughter and stored at a temperature of -24 °C until analysis. The concentration of lead in organs and muscle tissue was determined by flame atomic absorption spectrophotometer (AAS) (Shimadzu AA-7000). Sample preparation for analysis was performed by dry mineralization. The wet sample weighing 100 g was homogenized, transferred to a quartz cup and dried at 60-70 °C to constant weight.

A sample of 3 g was taken from the dry assay, which had been incinerated in a muffle furnace at 250 °C, and then increasing temperature 50 °C every 30 min to 450 °C, continued 2-3 hours before obtaining gray ashes. The cup with ashes was taken out from the furnace after cooling. The ash content was processed with hydrogen nitrate and dried on an electric tile until the ashes turned white. They were then diluted in 25 ml of the double distilled water. This solution was used for the analysis.

**Statistical analysis:** The original data on the lead content were tested for normality of distribution with the Shapiro-Wilk test. In most cases, the distribution didn't correspond to the normal. Therefore, for statistical analyses we used the approach developed for small number of samples without a normal distribution (Hözo et al 2005).

$$\bar{x} = \frac{a + 2m + b}{4} + \frac{a - 2n + b}{4n}$$

$$S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} (a^2 - m^2 - b^2 - \left(\frac{n-3}{2}\right) \frac{(a-m)^2 - (m-b)^2}{4} - n \left( \frac{a-2m-b}{4} - \frac{a-2m-b}{4v} \right)^2)$$

n – selection size; a – minimum value of a sign; b – maximal value of a sign; m – median.

Statistical data processing was carried out using the software

STATISTICA 6.1 and Microsöft Excel.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Lead cöncentratiöns in söil, förage, grain, and water are significantly belöw the MPC (MU, 1999) (Table 1). Lead level in the grain was higher in zöne 1 than in zöne 2. In söils and förages, there were nö differences in lead cöntent between the twö zönes. Lead cöntent in grain was 4-8 times löwer than in förages, which is caüsed by restrictiön by plants öf lead intake. In acidic söil, the biöavailability öf lead för plants is the highest. Accümülatiön öf lead iön in plants was limited, and möst öf the lead is löcated in the cell wall öf the rööf. The accümülatiön öf lead in the föliage was very little. Lead cöncentratiön in the plant always cörrrelated with its level in the söil (NRC 2005). Zhaö et al (2004), established that the lead cöncentratiön in the grain did nöf cörrrelate with the amöünt in the söil, and cöntaminatiön öccüurs düiring harvest öf grain störage. Often the reasön för this is the pöllütiön with söil particles. För this reasön, the silage may have higher lead cöncentratiön.

The significant interbreed differences in the cöncentratiön öf lead were revealed in lüings, spleen, and liver (Table 2). Therefore, amöng the Hereförd cattle, the cöncentratiön öf lead was higher in spleen, and amöng White-and-Black cattle, it was higher in lüings and liver. The differences in the lead accümülatiön in the örgans cöüld be related tö differences in metabölic rate amöng the animals öf dairy and beef breeds. The significant interbreed differences were nöf revealed in lead accümülatiön in kidney and müscler tissüe. The lead level in the örgans and müscler tissüe öf cattle varied in a wide range öf 0.042-0.418 mg/kg, büt these valües did nöf exceed MPC (SanPiN 2001). The data öbtained ön the lead cöntent in örgans and tissües cöüld be cönsidered as physiölöglcal and envirönmental reference valües för cattle with different prödüctivity rearing in climate and ecölöglcal cönditiöns öf Western Siberia.

The lead distribütiön in örgans and müscler tissüe fröm White-and-Black breed can be represented in the förm öf a ranked series: spleen < kidney < müscler < lüings < liver in the ratiö 1.0 : 1.5 : 2.2 : 5.3 : 11.0, and för the Hereförd breed:

**Table 1.** Lead cöntent in the söil, förage, grain, and water samples fröm the Növösibirsk regiön, mg/kg öf dry matter

Sample	Zöne 1	Zöne 2	MPC
Söil	15.1±2.7*	17.1±4.4	32
Födder	0.65±0.37	0.54±0.24	5.0
Grain	0.14±0.06	0.08±0.03	5.0
Water	0.005±0.002**	0.006±0.003	0.01

\* Mean ± Standard deviatiön; \*\* mg/dm<sup>3</sup>

kidney < müscler < light < spleen < liver in the ratiö 1.0 : 2.0 : 2.2 : 3.0 : 3.7. Accörding tö this rank, it is evident that the animals öf böth breeds have the highest lead accümülatiön in the liver. There is individüal variance in the level öf lead in the örgans and müscler tissüe. The ratiö öf extreme variants ön the lead level was the highest in Black-and-White cattle kidney (1:14) and müscler (1:10), and in Hereförd cattle in the light (1:10) and liver (1:8).

The lead accümülates in the testes and accümülatiön öf lead in tissües depends ön the döse and düratiön impact. This phenömenön was described in detail in experiments ön rats (IPCS 1995, ATSDR 1999). In öne stüdy, rats were given 50 mg öf lead (as lead acetate) per 1 liter öf water düiring 90 days. As a resült, the accümülatiön öf lead in tissües öccüurred in the föllöwing ördör: kidney > brain > spleen > pröstate > heart > testes > liver. The müscler are the predöminant site öf depösitiön öf the lead. The döse öf 5 mg/l a significant accümülatiön öf lead was öbserved önlly in the brain and kidneys. In möst örgans, the cöncentratiön öf lead was maximüm 2 weeks after the beginning öf the intrödüctiön öf additiönal döses öf lead. Höwever, the lead cöncentratiön is gradüally increasing in the brain düiring the 90-day periöd öf dösing (Areöla et al 1999). Cöncerning the sheep, which were given 1,000 mg/kg lead acetate, the maximüm cöncentratiön in müscler tissüe was öbserved after 30 days, and then began tö decline. Similar data were öbtained in experiments ön fish, where high lead levels were reached several weeks after expösüre and then decreased in söme tissües. In the gills öf perch in Növösibirsk reservöir, the Pb level was 0.84 mg/kg (Miller et al 2015). It is shöwn that the

**Table 2.** Lead cöntent in the cattle örgans and müscler tissüe, mg/kg natüral hümidity

Breed	Black-and-White			Hereförd		
	n	Mean±SD*	Range	n	Mean±SD*	Range
Liver	28	0.418±0.231	0.16-0.97	30	0.155±0.076	0.04-0.32
Spleen	30	0.038±0.026	0.01-0.10	31	0.125±0.057	0.03-0.20
Lüings	28	0.203±0.114	0.06-0.47	31	0.097±0.049	0.02-0.20
Müscler	14	0.083±0.055	0.02-0.20	29	0.083±0.057	0.004-0.21
Kidneys	31	0.059±0.036	0.01-0.14	31	0.042±0.028	0.007-0.11

\* SD – standard deviatiön

**Table 3.** Lead content in the organs and muscular tissue of cattle in different countries, mg/kg natural humidity

Kidneys	Liver	Muscular tissue	Age	Country	References
0.042	0.155	0.083	18 months	Russia	This study
0.059	0.418	0.083	18 months	Russia	This study
0.040	0.050	<0.02	–	Australia	Kramer et al 1983
0.012	0.015	–	–	Brazil	Aranha et al 1994
0.109	0.043	0.008	18-30 months	Egypt	Khalafalla et al 2011
0.035	0.034	0.011	6-12 months	Spain	Miranda et al 2003
0.014	0.048	0.048	6-10 months 2-16 years	Spain	López-Alonso et al 2000
0.460	0.577	0.501	–	Nigeria	Nwude et al 2011
0.174	0.614	–	0-2 years	Nigeria	Bala et al 2012
0.143	0.312	–	3-5 years		
0.133	0.291	–	6-8 years		
0.131	0.278	–	> 9 years		
0.01-0.16	0.01-0.26	–	2-5 years	Nigeria	Iwegbue et al 2008
–	–	0.201-0.208	24 months	Poland	Pilarczyk 2014
0.008-0.012	0.003-0.005	0.001-0.002	–	Poland	Falandysz 1993
0.22-0.31	0.25-0.37	0.13-0.26	–	Russia	Gaevaya and Zakharova 2011
–	0.544-1.072	0.386-0.671	3-5 years	Slovakia	Korenkova et al 2002

accumulation of metals in the body, causes morphological and other biochemical changes in organs and tissues of fish, rats, mice (Jarrar, Taib 2011, Lamhamdi et al 2013).

Lead accumulates in the kidneys and bone tissue, even at relatively low levels added to food. With a sharp poisoning of cattle with lead, the content in milk on average was 0.08 mg/l, and in muscles varied from 0.23 to 0.50 mg/kg. The lead level may vary considerably in the organs and muscle tissue from cattle of different age, productivity and habitat (Table 3). The maximum content of lead in the liver and muscles observed among the animals from Slovakia (Korenkova et al 2002), and in the kidneys of animals from Nigeria (Nwude et al 2011). In present study this metal was 5-10 times lower. The level of lead in our and other studies did not exceed the MPC.

### CONCLUSION

In soils, water, forage and grain from different zones of Western Siberia the lead content was much lower than MPC. Lead concentration in grain was less than that in forage. Differences between the areas on the lead concentration in soils and forages have not been identified. The data obtained can be used for future environmental monitoring of the level of this element in other areas of Siberia. The greatest concentrations of lead are accumulated in the liver of cattle. Breed and direction of productivity have a significant impact on the accumulation and distribution of lead (within the MPC) in the liver, lungs and spleen of cattle, which may indicate the dependence of accumulation of lead in the organs and

muscle tissue of animals from heredity. This should be taken into consideration at assessing the elemental status of animals. The average population values on the lead content in the organs and muscle tissue of the dairy and beef cattle could be considered as physiological and environmental standards for conditions of Western Siberia. The territory of Western Siberia on the content of lead in soil, water, forage, grain, and meat and offal of cattle is suitable for the production of environmentally safe products.

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## Salinity Tolerance and Survival of Freshwater Carp, *Labeo rohita* Ham. (rohu) in Inland Saline Water

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**Abstract:** The present study was conducted to assess salinity tolerance and survival of freshwater carp, *Labeo rohita* Ham. (rohu) in inland saline water. Fingerlings of rohu (11–12 cm) were exposed to 0, 2, 4, 6, 8 and 10 ppt ( $^{\circ}/_{\infty}$ ) salinity water for 10 days. Fish was acclimatized to different salinities by increasing the salinity gradually @ 1 ppt  $hr^{-1}$ . During the tolerance test, no mortality of fish was recorded up to 10 ppt salinity level and fish behaviour, in terms of swimming movement and appetite (feed intake), remained unaltered up to 4 ppt salinity. However, at 6 ppt salinity fish became less active after 7 days, while at 8 and 10 ppt salinities fish became less active after 6 days and sluggish after 8 days of exposure. Fish also exhibited low appetite in 8 and 10 ppt salinities after 8 days of exposure. The present study suggests that *L. rohita*, can tolerate salinity up to 10 ppt in inland saline water, but it is expected to perform well in salinities 6 ppt.

**Keywords:** Rohu, Salinity tolerance, Survival, Food intake

Water quality plays an important role in survival, growth and reproductive performance of aquatic organisms. Salinity is one of the most significant abiotic factors in aquaculture and its favourable range for survival and optimum growth of aquatic organisms vary with species (Mubarak et al 2015). Freshwater carps are stenohaline species and hence grow well in hypotonic environment, but they have been reported to tolerate, survive and even grow at low salinities (Kültz 2015). In freshwater fish, internal salt concentration is hypertonic to the surrounding environment with blood salt concentrations corresponding to approximately  $9 g l^{-1}$  (Wurts 1995). Salinity variations leads to osmoregulation stress in freshwater stenohaline species with significant effect on its physiology, which may lead to poor growth and even mortality, if salinity tolerance levels are crossed (Ghoshal et al 2011). About 1.20 million hectare of inland salt affected waterlogged areas in arid and semi-arid regions of non-coastal northern states in India (Mandal et al 2010) offer substantial scope for aquaculture development. Although, brackish water species are more suitable for rearing in these areas, but owing to non-availability of seed and climatic constraints (cold sensitive species), efforts have been made to culture fresh water fish in low salinity inland saline waters of Punjab, Haryana and Uttar Pradesh (Chughtai and Mahmood 2012, Pathak et al, 2013, Ansal et al 2013, Chandra and Joshi 2015, Dhawan et al 2016, Kumari et al 2018). Further, salinity tolerance of fresh water carps in inland saline water is species specific (Kasim 1983, Islam et

al 2014, Ansal et al 2016).

Most of the studies on salinity tolerance of freshwater stenohaline species have been carried out either with natural/artificial sea water or simple salt solutions prepared from various salts like sodium chloride (NaCl), calcium chloride ( $CaCl_2$ ) or rock salts. Very few reports with respect to survival and salinity tolerance of freshwater stenohaline species in inland saline water are available. Hence, the present study was taken up to assess survival and tolerance of one of the priced fresh water major carp rohu, *Labeo rohita* (Ham.) to evaluate ideal salinity levels for optimised growth of fish under saline conditions.

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

The present study was carried out at, Guru Angad Dev Veterinary and Animal Sciences University (GADVASU), Ludhiana, India. Inland saline water of  $15^{\circ}/_{\infty}$  ppt (parts per thousand) salinity was collected from the inland salt affected areas of district Fazilka, Punjab, India. Fingerlings (11–12 cm) of *L. rohita* Ham. were conditioned for two days in a cemented tank. After conditioning, the fingerlings were acclimatized to different salinities ranging from 0–10 ppt (0, 2, 4, 6, 8 and 10ppt) gradually by increasing the salinity @ 1 ppt  $hr^{-1}$ . Different salinity treatments were prepared by dilution of inland saline water (15 ppt) lifted from district Fazilka (Table 1) with underground fresh water. After acclimatization, fingerlings of *L. rohita* were distributed in 50L glass aquaria (@ 10 per aquarium) containing 35L water of different

salinities for 10 days tolerance test (three replicates per salinity treatment). The fish was fed with formulated pellet diet (rice bran + mustard meal 1:1) @ 0.5% of body weight once a day as sustenance ration. Salinity was maintained in each aquarium throughout the tolerance test by compensating evaporation losses by adding freshwater and maintaining water levels up to pre-marked levels. Left over feed and excreta of fish were removed from the aquaria by siphoning every alternate day. Physico-chemical properties of the collected water were estimated in terms of salinity, pH, conductivity (EC), total alkalinity (TA), total hardness (TH) and salts including sodium ( $\text{Na}^+$ ), potassium ( $\text{K}^+$ ), calcium ( $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ), magnesium ( $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ), chloride ( $\text{Cl}^-$ ) and sulphates ( $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) by following standard methods (APHA, 2012). Survival of fish was recorded every 12 hours during the tolerance test. Swimming activity and appetite (feed intake) of fish was observed to record behavioural abnormalities in *L. rohita* under salinity stress. Swimming activity of fish was categorised as active, less active and sluggish on the basis of daily visual observation, which included comparative opercular and horizontal/vertical movements of fish. Further, appetite of fish in different treatments was also observed daily and categorised as normal appetite and low appetite on the basis of comparative feed intake, which was analysed on the basis of amount of left over feed.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The mean water temperature varied from 25.33 to 26.33°C in different treatments and the differences among treatments were insignificant (Table 2). The pH of water was within the optimum range (7.0-8.5) for freshwater carps in all the salinity treatments (Boyd and Tucker 1998) and differences among treatments were insignificant. Among different treatments, mean EC, TA, TH and salt concentration of water was in accordance to the salinity of water from 0 to 10 ppt and differences were significant. The  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  ( $\text{mg l}^{-1}$ ) levels in all the treatments were within the permissible levels (<0.05  $\text{mg l}^{-1}$ ) for tropical fish (Robinette 1976, Boyd and Tucker 1998). In salinity tolerance test (10 days), no mortality of fish was observed up to maximum salinity (10 ppt) level tested, indicating that rohu can tolerate salinity levels up to 10 ppt. Although, earlier Kasim (1983) reported another *Labeo* species, *L. fimbriatus* to tolerate salinity levels up to 7.07 ppt (commercial mother salt solution) and Islam et al (2014), reared *L. rohita* fingerlings successfully up to 6 ppt salinity (NaCl solution) with 100% survival rate, but information in respect to salinity tolerance of *L. rohita* in inland saline water is lacking. Stenohaline freshwater species like carps have evolved the mechanism to compensate for passive absorption of water and passive loss of salts in a hypotonic

**Table 1.** Mean physico-chemical parameters of inland saline water collected from salt affected water logged areas of village Shajrana, District Fazilka, Punjab

Parameters	Value (Mean $\pm$ S.E)
Salinity (ppt)	15.00 $\pm$ 0.05
pH	7.28 $\pm$ 0.13
EC ( $\text{mScm}^{-1}$ )	19.78 $\pm$ 0.33
TA ( $\text{CaCO}_3 \text{mg l}^{-1}$ )	1254.70 $\pm$ 6.76
TH ( $\text{CaCO}_3 \text{mg l}^{-1}$ )	2320.00 $\pm$ 15.27
Ca Hardness ( $\text{CaCO}_3 \text{mg l}^{-1}$ )	1242.50 $\pm$ 1.55
$\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ( $\text{mg l}^{-1}$ )	497.40 $\pm$ 62.06
$\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ( $\text{mg l}^{-1}$ )	482.80 $\pm$ 3.60
$\text{Cl}^-$ ( $\text{mg l}^{-1}$ )	1478.70 $\pm$ 8.89
$\text{Na}^+$ ( $\text{mg l}^{-1}$ )	1176.70 $\pm$ 56.46
$\text{K}^+$ ( $\text{mg l}^{-1}$ )	85.26 $\pm$ 2.24
$\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ( $\text{mg l}^{-1}$ )	50.50 $\pm$ 7.08
$\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$ ( $\text{mg l}^{-1}$ )	0.36 $\pm$ 0.01

environment by producing large volumes of dilute urine and active absorption of salts through gills and kidneys. Some of the species manages to adapt and grow well in the saline environments, however when the level of isotonic point is crossed, there is imbalance in the internal salt concentration changing it from hypertonic to hypotonic, which forces the fish to make extensive physiological changes to compensate for the reverse osmoregulation (Mustafayer and Mekhtier 2008). Though, most of the aquatic organisms have ability to tolerate some degree of salinity stress, but it varies considerably with species/size of fish and freshwater fishes have been reported to tolerate, survive and grow at low salinities (Mateen et al 2004, Chughtai and Mahmood 2012, Islam et al 2014, Ansal et al 2013, Chandra and Jöshi 2015).

Mangat and Hundal (2014) reported 100% survival of common carp fingerlings up to 6 ppt salinity levels, when exposed to saline water for 60 days. Lawson et al (2011) cultured comet goldfish, *Carassius auratus* and recorded 100% survival of the fish up to 5 ppt salinity, with 90 and 94% mortality in 8 and 10 ppt salinities, respectively. Some other freshwater fishes like catfish and murrels have exhibited better salinity tolerance than carps. Spotted snakehead, *Channa punctata* adapted well to 10 ppt salinity without any signs of distress (Dübey et al 2016). While pangas catfish, *Pangasianodon hypophthalmus* survived up to 15 ppt, but optimum salinity for culture in inland saline water was recommended to be up to 10 ppt (Kumar et al 2017). Differences with respect to salinity tolerance of freshwater species can be attributed to several variations including species, size of fish, temperature, saline water composition, duration of the salinity exposure etc.

No significant changes in swimming activities of fish

were observed in all the salinity levels (2–10 ppt) during first 6 days of the tolerance test. Fish became less active after 7 days in 6 ppt salinity, while at 8 and 10 ppt salinities fish became less active after 6 days and sluggish after 8 days of exposure (Table 3). No significant differences with respect to feed intake (appetite) of fish were observed in all the salinities

(2–10 ppt) during the first 8 days of the tolerance test, while fish in 8 and 10 ppt salinities exhibited low appetite after 8 days of salinity exposure. Information on swimming activity and feed intake of *L. rohita* under saline condition is lacking. However, the results are in agreement with the study of Mangat and Hundal (2014), where no significant changes

**Table 2.** Mean physico-chemical parameters of water in different salinity treatments during tolerance test

Parameters	Treatments					
	0ppt (S0)	2ppt (S2)	4ppt (S4)	6ppt (S6)	8ppt (S8)	10ppt (S10)
Temperature (°C)	25.66 <sup>a</sup>	26.33 <sup>a</sup>	26.33 <sup>a</sup>	26.00 <sup>a</sup>	26.33 <sup>a</sup>	25.33 <sup>a</sup>
pH	8.13 <sup>a</sup>	8.12 <sup>a</sup>	8.12 <sup>a</sup>	8.13 <sup>a</sup>	8.01 <sup>a</sup>	8.17 <sup>a</sup>
E.C (mScm <sup>-1</sup> )	6.86 <sup>f</sup>	25.46 <sup>e</sup>	39.90 <sup>d</sup>	102.07 <sup>c</sup>	116.10 <sup>b</sup>	154.97 <sup>a</sup>
T.A (CaCO <sub>3</sub> mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	249.00 <sup>e</sup>	297.33 <sup>d</sup>	339.33 <sup>c</sup>	362.00 <sup>b</sup>	382.90 <sup>a</sup>	396.83 <sup>a</sup>
T.H (CaCO <sub>3</sub> mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	287.77 <sup>f</sup>	474.90 <sup>e</sup>	524.40 <sup>d</sup>	849.00 <sup>c</sup>	1218.6 <sup>b</sup>	1330.10 <sup>a</sup>
Ca Hardness (CaCO <sub>3</sub> mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	155.67 <sup>c</sup>	173.07 <sup>c</sup>	230.17 <sup>b</sup>	298.43 <sup>a</sup>	305.17 <sup>a</sup>	284.13 <sup>a</sup>
Ca <sup>2+</sup> (CaCO <sub>3</sub> mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	56.06 <sup>bc</sup>	63.07 <sup>c</sup>	92.51 <sup>bc</sup>	89.70 <sup>bc</sup>	116.34 <sup>ab</sup>	156.68 <sup>a</sup>
Mg <sup>2+</sup> (CaCO <sub>3</sub> mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	73.50 <sup>e</sup>	90.39 <sup>e</sup>	126.13 <sup>d</sup>	163.43 <sup>c</sup>	219.67 <sup>b</sup>	262.11 <sup>a</sup>
Cl <sup>-</sup> (mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	48.73 <sup>f</sup>	308.17 <sup>e</sup>	601.40 <sup>d</sup>	883.73 <sup>c</sup>	1136.9 <sup>b</sup>	1259.90 <sup>a</sup>
Na <sup>2+</sup> (mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	45.40 <sup>f</sup>	153.73 <sup>e</sup>	265.50 <sup>d</sup>	483.50 <sup>c</sup>	846.50 <sup>b</sup>	934.70 <sup>a</sup>
K <sup>+</sup> (mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	3.45 <sup>f</sup>	25.65 <sup>e</sup>	37.20 <sup>d</sup>	57.86 <sup>c</sup>	79.90 <sup>b</sup>	87.84 <sup>a</sup>
SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> (mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	8.59 <sup>d</sup>	10.56 <sup>d</sup>	12.62 <sup>c</sup>	15.30 <sup>b</sup>	19.48 <sup>a</sup>	20.29 <sup>a</sup>
NH <sub>3</sub> -N (mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	0.029 <sup>a</sup>	0.026 <sup>a</sup>	0.033 <sup>a</sup>	0.026 <sup>a</sup>	0.037 <sup>a</sup>	0.030 <sup>a</sup>

Values with different superscripts in a row differ significantly (p 0.05)

**Table 3.** Behavioural changes in fish exposed to different salinity levels during tolerance test

Behaviour	Day	Treatments					
		S0 (0 ppt)	S2 (2 ppt)	S4 (4 ppt)	S6 (6 ppt)	S8 (8 ppt)	S10 (10 ppt)
Swimming activity	1	A	A	A	A	A	A
	2	A	A	A	A	A	A
	3	A	A	A	A	A	A
	4	A	A	A	A	A	A
	5	A	A	A	A	A	A
	6	A	A	A	A	A	A
	7	A	A	A	A	LA	LA
	8	A	A	A	LA	LA	LA
	9	A	A	A	LA	S	S
	10	A	A	A	LA	S	S
Feeding behaviour	1	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
	2	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
	3	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
	4	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
	5	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
	6	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
	7	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
	8	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
	9	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	LAP	LAP
	10	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	LAP	LAP

Swimming Activity: A = Active, LA = Less Active, S = Sluggish; Feeding behaviour: NAP = Normal Appetite, LAP = Low appetite

were observed in feed intake of fresh water carp, *C. carpio* up to 6 ppt salinity, during first 10 days of long term rearing in different salinities viz; 1.5, 3, 6 and 10 ppt (prepared through commercial grade NaCl and CaCl<sub>2</sub>) for 60 days. Further, as salinity tolerance of fresh water fish varies with species (Kasim 1983, Ansal et al 2013) and unlike sea water; composition of inland saline water varies with location within a region (Dhawan et al 2010), it is vital to develop regional package of practices for rearing fresh water carps in inland saline waters.

### CONCLUSION

*L. rohita*, can tolerate salinity levels up to 10 ppt, but it is expected to perform well in salinities 6 ppt and hence, needs to be investigated through long term growth studies to assess ideal salinity level for optimised growth of fish in inland saline water, with minimum possible osmoregulatory stress.

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# Salinity Tolerance of Freshwater Shubunkin Gold Fish, *Carassius auratus* (Linn.): Suitability for Rearing in Inland Saline Water

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**Abstract:** Short term salinity tolerance test (10 days) was conducted to assess the stress responses in terms of fish survival, behaviour and coloration of freshwater shubunkin gold fish, *Carassius auratus* (L.) in different salinity levels (2 to 10 ppt). Inland saline water (15 ppt) collected from district Fazilka (Punjab) was used for preparation of different treatment salinities after dilution with freshwater (0 ppt). After proper conditioning in indoor conditions, fish were acclimatized (gradual increase in salinity @ 1 ppt at 1-hr interval) and distributed @ 10/aquaria (50 liter capacity). There was significant increase in pH and NH<sub>3</sub>-N, however, these remained in tolerance range for freshwater fish culture. The rest of the parameters i.e. EC, TA, TH and ionic composition (Na<sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) of water increased significantly in accordance with the composition of source inland saline water. At the termination of salinity tolerance test, percent fish survival did not vary significantly, however, in 0 and 2 ppt, it was 100%, which decreased to 96.66% in 4, 6 and 8 ppt and 93.33 % in 10 ppt. Fish behaviour w.r.t. swimming activity and feeding responses showed gradual departure from normal behaviour. Deviation from normal skin coloration was insignificant in terms of L a\*b\* values and color indices (chroma and hue) during short duration of 10 days exposure to increasing salinity conditions. Overall results are indicative of stimulation of adaptive mechanism in freshwater fish during shorter duration of salinity exposure.

**Keywords:** Salinity stress, Gold fish, Inland saline water, Coloration, Fish behaviour

Freshwater goldfish (*Carassius auratus*) having its origin in central Asia, China and Japan and is one of the earliest bred and highly domesticated. It was first reared in China in (1000 AD) followed by, Europe (1611) and America (1876 AD). Of the cyprinids domesticated, goldfish remains the most prominent and commonly used as ornamental pet in home aquaria. Goldfish varieties vary greatly in size, body shape, fin configuration and among major gold fish varieties, shubunkin is one of the most important varieties due to its unique body coloration and fin pattern along with advantage of hardy nature. Robust nature of shubunkin variety of gold fish can be considered advantageous for its culture in varied environmental conditions including salinity. Among various abiotic factors, salinity is one of the critical parameter for the overall well-being of the freshwater species, as it determines the level of osmoregulatory stress. The knowledge of salinity tolerance is important for aquaculture production in different water sources. Inland salt affected water logged areas of south-west districts of Punjab are of much importance in this regard, as aquaculture is the most viable option to reclaim these lands (Dhawan et al 2010, Ansal et al 2013). Many reports are available regarding rearing of freshwater ornamental fish (gold fish, crucian carp and mollies) in saline

water, but all these studies pertain to natural/artificial sea water (Vasagam et al 2005, Schofield et al 2006, Kucuk 2013). Further, ionic composition of inland saline water differs from sea water (Dhawan et al 2010), which also varies with location. Adaptability and tolerance of fish including goldfish to physical and chemical changes in water vary greatly. Most of the freshwater fish are adapted and can only survive in the freshwater, however some have great adaptations for saline water. Schofield et al (2006) reported that goldfish is able to persist in low salinity environments of <10 ppt for a long period of time and higher salinities for short period. For optimizing the rearing technology of freshwater ornamental gold fish, *Carassius auratus* Linn. var. shubunkin in inland saline water areas, it is vital to study the stress response of this species at different salinity levels with optimum tolerance range, so as to reach at the best possible salinity level. In view of the above background, salinity tolerance test of 10 days duration was conducted to study the tolerance level of freshwater ornamental shubunkin gold fish, *C. auratus* (Linn.) in inland saline water.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

### Collection of inland saline water (stock) and preparation

**of experimental salinities:** Inland saline water was collected from salt affected/water logged areas of village Shajrana, district Fazilka, Punjab (30° 40' 3" N and 74° 02' 5" E). Stock inland saline water (15 ppt) was analysed for its physico-chemical properties viz., temperature, pH, salinity, electric conductivity (EC), total alkalinity (TA), total hardness (TH), ammonical nitrogen (NH<sub>3</sub>-N), and ionic composition in terms of cations [calcium (Ca<sup>2+</sup>), magnesium (Mg<sup>2+</sup>) sodium (Na<sup>+</sup>), potassium (K<sup>+</sup>)] and anions [chloride (Cl<sup>-</sup>) and sulphate (SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>)]. From this stock water, different experimental salinities (2, 4, 6, 8 and 10 ppt) were prepared by mixing freshwater, having salinity of 0 ppt.

**Preparation of the experimental aquaria:** The experiments were carried out in glass aquaria (50 liter capacity with water volume of 40 liters) and were filled with water having different salinities (0-10 ppt) and supplied with continuous oxygen supply through aerator.

**Procurement, acclimatization and stocking of the experimental fish:** Shubunkin gold fish, *C. auratus* (Linnaeus) procured from market and were conditioned for one week in FRP ponds under indoor conditions. After proper conditioning, fish were acclimatized (gradual increase in salinity @ 1 ppt at 1-hr interval) and distributed @ 10/treatment randomly in control and five experimental salinity treatments in triplicate. At the time of stocking, the initial length and weight of fish varied from 6.5-8.5 cm and 4.5-8.5 g respectively.

**Feeding of fish:** During salinity tolerance test of 10 days, fish were fed once a day, with commercial feed [(OPTIMUM with nutritional composition: crude protein – 28%, crude fiber – 4%, crude fat – 3% and moisture – 10 %)] @ 0.5-1.0 % fish body weight.

**Observations:** Daily observations were recorded w.r.to fish survival, behaviour and water quality parameters in terms of temperature, pH, EC, TA, TH, NH<sub>3</sub>-N, ionic composition in terms of cations (Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, and K<sup>+</sup>) and anions (Cl<sup>-</sup> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) according to standard methods of APHA (2012). Salinity was also monitored daily and maintained as per salinity treatments. To study the coloration parameters, digital photographs of experimental fish were taken at completion of salinity tolerance test with chroma meter KONICA MINOLTA CR-400. Color was measured from at least three fishes from each replicate from mid dorsal and mid ventral region of fish body. The instrument was first calibrated using a white tile provided with the instrument. Three parameters i.e. L (Lighting ranging from 0 for black to 100 for white), a\* (balance between red/green) and b\* (balance between yellow and blue) was measured. The hue and chroma (saturation) values were calculated using the formula:  $[\tan^{-1}(b/a)]$  and  $[(a^2+b^2)^{1/2}]$ , respectively.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Physico-chemical parameters of stock inland saline water:** Mean temperature and salinity of inland saline water (stock) at the time of analysis was 28.0 °C and 15 ppt, respectively. Ionic profile of stock water revealed Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> as dominant cation and anion respectively (Table 1).

**Physico-chemical parameters of water in different salinity treatments:** The temperature did not vary with increasing salinity of water (0-10 ppt) in different treatments (29-29.91°C). There was significant increase in all the water quality parameters including pH (6.51-8.26), EC (0.54-13.41), TA (255-418), TH (285-1295) and NH<sub>3</sub>-N (0.125-0.285), which can be attributed to increasing concentration of salts with increasing salinity (Table 2). The relative abundance of different ions was in accordance to that of stock inland saline (15 ppt) water, from which different salinity water for different treatments was prepared (Na<sup>+</sup> > Mg<sup>2+</sup> > Ca<sup>2+</sup> > K<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> > SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>). At particular temperature range, increase in salinity has direct effect on pH, TA and NH<sub>3</sub>-N. In the present study, although pH increased significantly with increasing salinity, however, it remained in acceptable range (Bhatnagar et al 2004) for freshwater fish culture. Further, significantly higher NH<sub>3</sub>-N in 10 ppt may be due to high pH and salinity, as two of these parameters has positive correlation with ammonia (Wurts 2000). For commercial production, un-ionized ammonia and total ammonical nitrogen (TAN) should be below 0.05 mg/l and 1.0 mg/l for long-term exposure. In the present study, although NH<sub>3</sub>-N increased with increasing salinity, but it remained in tolerance range for freshwater fish (DWAMD 1994). As the salinity is

**Table 1.** Physico-chemical parameters of inland saline water (stock water) from village Shajrana, district Fazilka (Punjab)

Parameters	Mean± SE
Salinity (ppt)	15 ± 0.05
Temperature (°C)	28.0 ± 0.28
pH	7.28 ± 0.13
EC (mScm <sup>-1</sup> )	19.78 ± 0.33
TA (CaCO <sub>3</sub> mg/l <sup>-1</sup> )	340.0 ± 0.00
TH (CaCO <sub>3</sub> mg/l <sup>-1</sup> )	3320.0 ±60.09
NH <sub>3</sub> -N (mg/l <sup>-1</sup> )	0.36 ±0.01
Ca <sup>2+</sup> (CaCO <sub>3</sub> mg/l <sup>-1</sup> )	497.4 ±62.06
Mg <sup>2+</sup> (CaCO <sub>3</sub> mg/l <sup>-1</sup> )	482.8 ±3.60
Na <sup>+</sup> (mg/l <sup>-1</sup> )	1121.0 ±1.24
K <sup>+</sup> (mg/l <sup>-1</sup> )	85.11 ±2.33
Cl <sup>-</sup> (mg/l <sup>-1</sup> )	5199.3 ±2.08
SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> (mg/l <sup>-1</sup> )	50.5 ±7.08

the total concentration of dissolved ions in water, with major contribution of calcium, sodium, potassium, bicarbonate, chloride and sulphate, therefore, most of the parameters (TH, EC and ionic composition) during 10 days of salinity tolerance test, showed linear increase, with direct correlation to the salinity.

**Fish survival:** In salinity tolerance test (10 days), percent fish survival did not vary significantly, however, in 0 and 2 ppt, it was 100%, which decreased to 96.66% in 4, 6 and 8 ppt and 93.33 % in 10 ppt (Table 3). During salinity tolerance test for 10 days, fish mortality was observed from 5<sup>th</sup> day onwards at higher salinity treatments 6–10 ppt, however, the differences were insignificant for overall fish survival among control and different treatments at the termination of tolerance test. Goldfish is one of the examples of cold water freshwater versatile fish species w.r.t. its physiology and metabolism, as it survives (93.33 %) even up to 10 ppt during salt tolerance test. Küçük (2013) observed 100 percent survival of goldfish (*C. auratus*) and crucian carp (*C. carassius*) up to salinity of 16 ppt. At 20 ppt, survival of both the species however decreased. Likewise, Sharma et al (2017) reported 100 percent survival of ornamental koi carp (*C. carpio*) up to 12 ppt salinity in inland saline water for 4 months. However, Lawsön and Alake (2011) reported 100 percent survival of comet goldfish only up to 3 ppt, which decreased to significantly low value of 60 and 40 percent at 4 and 5 ppt. Further, at 6–10 ppt, 100 percent fish mortality was observed, which indicated inability of the fish to maintain osmotic balance between the salt concentration of its body fluid and that of its environment. In the present study, shubunkin goldfish showed adaptability for short term exposure (10 days) to salinity up to 10 ppt.

**Table 3.** Survival (%) of shubunkin goldfish during the salinity tolerance test in different salinity treatments

Day	4 ppt	6 ppt	8 ppt	10 ppt
1-4	100 <sup>a</sup>	100 <sup>a</sup>	100 <sup>a</sup>	100 <sup>a</sup>
5	100 <sup>a</sup>	96.66 <sup>a</sup>	96.66 <sup>a</sup>	96.66 <sup>a</sup>
6	96.66 <sup>a</sup>	96.66 <sup>a</sup>	96.66 <sup>a</sup>	96.66 <sup>a</sup>
7	96.66 <sup>a</sup>	96.66 <sup>a</sup>	96.66 <sup>a</sup>	96.66 <sup>a</sup>
8	96.66 <sup>a</sup>	96.66 <sup>a</sup>	96.66 <sup>a</sup>	93.33 <sup>a</sup>
9	96.66 <sup>a</sup>	96.66 <sup>a</sup>	96.66 <sup>a</sup>	93.33 <sup>a</sup>
10	96.66 <sup>a</sup>	96.66 <sup>a</sup>	96.66 <sup>a</sup>	93.33 <sup>a</sup>

\* 100 per cent survival at 0 and 2ppt throughout salinity tolerance test

**Fish behaviour:** During salinity tolerance test, normal swimming activity of the fish was observed up to highest salinity i.e. 10 ppt for first 2 days, as the fish was gradually acclimatized to the salinity stress. However, from 4<sup>th</sup> day onward, fish showed low swimming activity in 4 ppt and from 3<sup>rd</sup> day onward in 6–10 ppt. Fish was sluggish in 8 and 10 ppt from 6<sup>th</sup> day onward. In terms of feeding behaviour, response of fish diverted from high appetite to low appetite in 4–10 ppt from 5<sup>th</sup> day onwards (Table 4).

The behavioural changes in terms of swimming activity and feeding response clearly indicated adaptive strategy towards changing environmental conditions w.r.t. salinity. Fish was able to adapt easily up to 4 ppt, whereas from 6–10 ppt, low activity to sluggishness along with low appetite indicated gradual drifting away from normal physiological responses. According to Lawsön and Alake (2011) goldfish was very active from 0–3 ppt throughout the study period of 14 days, 4–6 ppt for 3 days and in 7ppt for 2 days. Fish showed erratic swimming behaviour from day 5 to 8, in 8–10 ppt salinity. Likewise, feeding behaviour was normal from 0–3

**Table 2.** Mean physico-chemical parameters of water in different salinity treatments during the salinity tolerance test

Parameters	0 ppt	2 ppt	4 ppt	6 ppt	8 ppt	10 ppt
Temperature (°C)	29.68 <sup>a</sup>	29.59 <sup>a</sup>	29.68 <sup>a</sup>	29.78 <sup>a</sup>	29.66 <sup>a</sup>	29.58 <sup>a</sup>
pH	6.69 <sup>d</sup>	7.24 <sup>c</sup>	7.55 <sup>b</sup>	7.29 <sup>b</sup>	8.13 <sup>a</sup>	8.12 <sup>a</sup>
EC (mS cm <sup>-1</sup> )	0.60 <sup>f</sup>	2.34 <sup>e</sup>	6.21 <sup>d</sup>	7.24 <sup>c</sup>	11.53 <sup>b</sup>	13.23 <sup>a</sup>
TA (CaCO <sub>3</sub> mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	278.8 <sup>e</sup>	310.3 <sup>d</sup>	348.6 <sup>c</sup>	375.0 <sup>b</sup>	400.3 <sup>a</sup>	405.3 <sup>a</sup>
TH (CaCO <sub>3</sub> mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	289.0 <sup>f</sup>	505.0 <sup>e</sup>	625.3 <sup>d</sup>	945.3 <sup>c</sup>	1030.0 <sup>b</sup>	1260.0 <sup>a</sup>
NH <sub>3</sub> -N (mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	0.16 <sup>b</sup>	0.17 <sup>b</sup>	0.15 <sup>b</sup>	0.16 <sup>b</sup>	0.18 <sup>b</sup>	0.24 <sup>a</sup>
Ca <sup>2+</sup> (CaCO <sub>3</sub> mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	51.33 <sup>f</sup>	95.87 <sup>e</sup>	126.20 <sup>d</sup>	160.70 <sup>c</sup>	206.10 <sup>b</sup>	224.70 <sup>a</sup>
Mg <sup>2+</sup> (CaCO <sub>3</sub> mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	60.31 <sup>f</sup>	109.30 <sup>e</sup>	135.40 <sup>d</sup>	208.20 <sup>c</sup>	227.40 <sup>b</sup>	282.85 <sup>a</sup>
Na <sup>+</sup> (mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	57.93 <sup>f</sup>	162.10 <sup>e</sup>	199.50 <sup>d</sup>	320.20 <sup>c</sup>	472.10 <sup>b</sup>	759.70 <sup>a</sup>
K <sup>+</sup> (mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	7.56 <sup>e</sup>	9.41 <sup>d</sup>	10.18 <sup>d</sup>	19.18 <sup>c</sup>	36.56 <sup>b</sup>	42.30 <sup>a</sup>
Cl <sup>-</sup> (mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	67.1 <sup>f</sup>	268.8 <sup>e</sup>	666.6 <sup>d</sup>	957.0 <sup>c</sup>	1048.0 <sup>b</sup>	1230.0 <sup>a</sup>
SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> (mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	9.24 <sup>f</sup>	64.46 <sup>e</sup>	79.37 <sup>d</sup>	93.96 <sup>c</sup>	117.2 <sup>b</sup>	140.80 <sup>a</sup>

\*Values with same superscripts (a,b,c.....f) in a row do not differ significantly (p 0.05)

**Table 4.** Fish behavior-swimming activity and feeding response of fish in different salinity treatments during the salinity tolerance test

Particular	Day	Treatments					
		0 ppt	2 ppt	4 ppt	6 ppt	8 ppt	10 ppt
Swimming activity	1	A	A	A	A	A	A
	2	A	A	A	A	A	A
	3	A	A	A	LA	LA	LA
	4	A	A	LA	LA	LA	LA
	5	A	A	LA	LA	LA	LA
	6	A	A	LA	LA	S	S
	7	A	A	LA	LA	S	S
	8	A	A	LA	LA	S	S
	9	A	A	LA	LA	S	S
	10	A	A	LA	LA	S	S
Feeding response	1	HAp	Hap	HAp	HAp	HAp	HAp
	2	HAp	Hap	HAp	HAp	HAp	HAp
	3	HAp	Hap	HAp	HAp	HAp	HAp
	4	HAp	Hap	HAp	HAp	HAp	HAp
	5	HAp	Hap	LAp	HAp	HAp	HAp
	6	HAp	Hap	LAp	LAp	LAp	LAp
	7	HAp	Hap	LAp	LAp	LAp	LAp
	8	HAp	Hap	LAp	LAp	LAp	LAp
	9	HAp	Hap	LAp	LAp	LAp	LAp
	10	HAp	Hap	LAp	LAp	LAp	LAp

Swimming activity – A = Active, LA = Less active, S = Sluggish; Feeding Response – HAp – High appetite, LAp = Low appetite

**Table 5.** Comparative L a\* b\* coloration and color indices of skin from dorsal and ventral regions of shubunkin gold fish, *C. auratus* in different salinity treatments at the completion of the salinity tolerance test

Lab valúe/ cölóur indices	Dörsal regiön					
	0 ppt	2 ppt	4 ppt	6 ppt	8 ppt	10 ppt
L	41.43 <sup>a</sup>	44.95 <sup>a</sup>	54.40 <sup>a</sup>	54.18 <sup>a</sup>	44.02 <sup>a</sup>	44.14 <sup>a</sup>
a*	1.37 <sup>a</sup>	3.19 <sup>a</sup>	1.83 <sup>a</sup>	5.20 <sup>a</sup>	5.53 <sup>a</sup>	0.87 <sup>a</sup>
b*	2.63 <sup>a</sup>	5.73 <sup>a</sup>	6.25 <sup>a</sup>	20.56 <sup>a</sup>	16.33 <sup>a</sup>	5.15 <sup>a</sup>
Chröma	41.47 <sup>a</sup>	45.06 <sup>a</sup>	54.46 <sup>a</sup>	54.55 <sup>a</sup>	44.44 <sup>a</sup>	44.18 <sup>a</sup>
Hüe	2376 <sup>b</sup>	2582 <sup>a</sup>	3120 <sup>a</sup>	3125 <sup>a</sup>	2546 <sup>a</sup>	2531 <sup>a</sup>
	Ventral Regiön					
L	52.88 <sup>a</sup>	47.45 <sup>a</sup>	46.07 <sup>a</sup>	49.57 <sup>a</sup>	43.14 <sup>a</sup>	47.04 <sup>a</sup>
a*	1.75 <sup>c</sup>	0.98 <sup>c</sup>	0.36 <sup>c</sup>	3.86 <sup>b</sup>	7.68 <sup>a</sup>	0.52 <sup>c</sup>
b*	14.27 <sup>a</sup>	4.62 <sup>a</sup>	7.70 <sup>a</sup>	16.85 <sup>a</sup>	19.25 <sup>a</sup>	2.36 <sup>a</sup>
Chröma	52.92 <sup>a</sup>	47.49 <sup>a</sup>	46.08 <sup>a</sup>	49.76 <sup>a</sup>	43.83 <sup>a</sup>	47.05 <sup>a</sup>
Hüe	3032 <sup>a</sup>	2721 <sup>a</sup>	2640 <sup>ab</sup>	2851 <sup>a</sup>	2511 <sup>ab</sup>	2696 <sup>a</sup>

ppt in terms of very high appetite up to 3 ppt, thereafter behavior declined to moderate and low appetite and finally no appetite from 4–10 ppt in a gradual pattern. Behavioral changes during salinity tolerance test in the present study too

indicated adaptive capability of gold fish maximally up to 6 ppt for shorter exposure period. Adverse effect of higher salinities was observed in gold fish in terms of food intake with altered feeding responses by Lüz et al (2008). Mangat and Hündal (2014) too reported high to moderate appetite of freshwater common carp, when exposed to 6 ppt salinity for 60 days during summer, autumn and winter seasons. At higher salinity (12 ppt), appetite was low during winter season, but 100 percent fish mortality was observed during summer and autumn.

#### Colouration Studies

**L a\* b\* colouration:** Among different treatments, L, a\* b\* values in dorsal region ranged between 41.43–54.40, 0.87–5.20 and 2.63–20.56 respectively, with insignificant differences, whereas in ventral region, the values ranged between 43.14–52.88, 0.36–7.68 and 2.36–19.25 respectively, with insignificant differences for L and b\*, but significant differences for a\*.

**Chroma and hue:** Among different treatments, chroma and hue values in dorsal region ranged between 41.47–54.55 and 2376–3125, respectively with insignificant differences for chroma, while hue values were significantly higher in all the salinity treatments in comparison to control (0 ppt). In ventral region, the chroma and hue values ranged between 43.83–52.92 and 2511–3032, respectively, with insignificant differences for chroma, while for hue differences were significant among different salinity treatments. Digital observation of skin coloration did not show any remarkable departure from normal body pigmentation, during short duration of 10 days exposure to salinity conditions. Maintenance of normal color with slight variation in terms of hue (color appearance) up to highest salinity indicated the fish were able to maintain their normal body metabolism during short term salinity exposure. Lawsön and Alake (2011) too observed similar results in gold fish exposed to different salinities. Normal gold color was maintained up to 5 ppt up to four days and thereafter a change to bleached yellow color was observed. There was restoration to normal gold color between days 9 to 14.

#### CONCLUSION

The ornamental shubunkin gold fish *Carassius auratus* (L.) is capable of adapting under salinity conditions up to 4 ppt in inland saline water, beyond which negative effects were observed in terms of decreased survival, abnormal behavior and dull coloration. The freshwater ornamental shubunkin gold fish, can be reared for shorter duration in inland saline water by maintaining the salinity 4 ppt. However, lab and field trials for longer duration need to be conducted for better understanding of effect of salinity (inland saline water)

cöüpled with múltiple factörs ünder natüral cönditiöns.

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# Perception of Extension Personnel and Farmers towards Effect on Open Burning in Rice and Wheat Cropping System

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**Abstract:** The practice of mono cropping of rice and wheat is very popular in the state of Punjab. Due to the short span of time between harvesting of rice and sowing of wheat, the farmers dispose of the straw in their fields by burning in the open fields. This paper appraises the perception of the farmers and extension personnel towards the effect of open burning in rice and wheat cropping system in Punjab. Descriptive statistics was used to analyze the data. The results indicated that both the extension personnel and farmer respondents had different perception on statements like pest and pathogens can be controlled by straw burning, weeds can be controlled by open straw burning and burning of crop stubble decreases the yield of milk in milch animals and forest trees. Significant determinants of perception on effect of straw burning were education level and ecological consciousness of the farmer respondents. The study recommends various educational efforts to sensitize the farmers on the long term harmful effect of straw burning as this will improve the perception and understanding of their activities which will lead to discontinuance of straw burning practices.

**Keywords:** Straw burning, Perception, Extension personnel, Farmers

At present Punjab has about 2.722 million ha under rice cultivation that produces roughly 16 to 17 million tonnes of rice straw and about three-fourth of the residue is disposed off in the field (Anonymous 2015). Toxic chemicals, which result in respiratory problems, are released in the atmosphere. On November 8th, 2017 pollution in Delhi, India, surged so high that some monitoring stations reported an Air Quality Index of 999, way above the upper limit of the worst category, hazardous (Anonymous 2017). A paucity of evidence of man's various activities has caused a change in the interaction of various elements of the environment over the years. These activities include industrialization, construction, agricultural practices, transportation which promotes the welfare and development for human but results to collateral damage of the ecosystem by the release of harmful materials in the environment. The practice of modern agriculture has led to the degradation of land and environment due to the release of various agricultural by-products. In order to accommodate wheat crop in the system, rice has to be harvested early which gives the farmers a narrow time gap to turn around for planting of the wheat crop. For this reason, majority of the rice is mechanically harvested leaving heavy and loose straw in the open fields. Although stubble burning is a rapid and relatively cheap option for farmers, there are long-standing concerns about both the on and off-farm effects of the practice (Singh et al 2008). Air pollution from stubble burning is a particular issue and more

than 60 percent of the population live in the rice growing areas that are exposed to air pollution due to burning of stubbles (Kumar and Kumar 2010). Fine particulate matter from stubble burning causes acute asthmatic and cardio vascular problems in elderly people and children and is also associated with lung disease. Stubble burning also contributes significantly to greenhouse gas emissions (Gujral et al 2010) and the thick clouds of smoke engulf roads, causing an increase in the number of accidents and blocking or slowing down traffic.

Although, farmers and policy makers are well-aware of the consequences of on-farm burning, farmers are concerned with issues which affects them immediately. Farmers with access to extension services are likely to perceive changes in the climate because extension services provide information about climate and weather (Gbetibouo 2009). Understanding the perception of climate change governance of the farmers is important as perception can shape the preparedness to adapt and change their practices (Speranza 2010). The present study was undertaken with objective to study the perception of the farmers and extension personnel in order to provide meaningful information on decisions and actions towards straw burning in Punjab.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

**Population and sample:** The study comprised of two types

of respondents, farmers and extension personnel. A sample of 150 extension personnel (Agricultural Development Officers) was selected randomly from 300 extension personnel in the state. From the three agro climatic zones of Punjab, viz. Central Plain Zone, Western Zone and Sub Mountain Undulating Zone, one district was selected and further two villages were selected randomly. Ten farmers from each village were randomly selected. Therefore the study sample comprised of 60 farmers and 150 extension personnel as respondents.

**Measurement of variables:** The perception of the respondents was studied by preparing items related to the effect of open burning in rice and wheat cropping system such as, effect on soil health, human health, animal health, air pollution, etc. It was measured on a three point continuum: agree, partially agree and disagree with a score of 3, 2 and 1 respectively.

**Reliability and validity of instruments:** The split half method was employed for testing the reliability of the scale and scale was split into two halves on the basis of odd and even numbers of the statements. The two sets of scores were obtained and Pearson Product Moment Coefficient was worked out for the two sets of the scores for each of the scale. The correlation coefficient gave the reliability of the half of the scale. The equation which is referred as "Spearman Brown Correlation" formula for split half reliability (Gülförd 1954) was used to find out the reliability coefficient for the full scale. The empirical type of validity determination was used to calculate validity of the scale and was worked out by using the square root of its reliability.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Socio-economic profile of the extension personnel respondents:** The information regarding socio-economic profile of the extension personnel which include age, education, service experience, etc. is given in Table 2. The respondents were classified into following categories using cumulative cube root method for age and Mean±SD method for service experience.

**Socio-economic profile of the farmer respondents:** The information regarding socio-economic profile of the farmer respondents which include age, education, farming experience, family size, has been presented in Table 3. The respondents were classified into following categories using cumulative cube root method for age, annual gross income, extension contacts, mass media exposure, innovative proneness, scientific orientation, risk orientation, ecological consciousness and economic motivation while operational land holding was as mentioned in the Statistical Abstract of Punjab (2015).

**Table 1.** Reliability and validity of scales / test

Instruments	Reliability	Validity
Perception (Farmers)	0.982	0.990
Perception (Extension Personnel)	0.872	0.933

**Table 2.** Socio personal profile of extension personnel respondents

Socio-personal characteristics	Category	Extension personnel (n=150)	
		Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Age (years)	28-36	95	63.33
	36-44	23	15.33
	44-52	32	21.33
Gender	Male	142	94.67
	Female	8	5.33
Education	Graduate	94	62.66
	Post-graduate	47	31.33
	Doctorate	9	6.00
Service Experience (years)	4-11	97	64.67
	11-18	28	18.67
	18-25	25	16.67
Training/Seminar / Conference / Workshop attended in straw management	Yes	—	—
	No	150	100.00

**Perception of extension personnel and farmer respondents regarding the effect of open burning practices in rice wheat cropping pattern:** Majority of the extension personnel (94 %) and farmer respondents (68.33 %) agreed that burning of straw depletes the important soil nutrients (Table 4). This is the reason why farmers have to increase the dosage for nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium fertilizers for the next crop which have been depleted through burning of straw in the previous season. The results were similar to Heard et al (2006) who reported that burning spring wheat, oat, and flax straw resulted in 98 to 100 per cent loss of nitrogen, 70 to 90 per cent of sulfur and 20 to 40 percent of phosphorus and potassium. Nearly one third of the extension personnel (33.33%) and more than three fourth of the farmer respondents (78.32%) agreed that insect pest and pathogens can be controlled by straw burning. The extension personnel mentioned that although burning is done to eradicate insect pests, it was not an effective method. In case of carbon content being reduced through straw burning, majority of the extension personnel (80%) and farmer respondents (88.33%) agreed. More than half of the extension personnel (52.67%) and almost two third of the farmer respondents (65%) agreed that increase in

**Table 3.** Söciö-persöнал and psychölägical characteristics öf farmer respöndents

Söciö-persöнал characteristics	Categöry	Farmer respöndents (n=60)	
		Freqüency	Percentage
Age (years)	23-38	17	28.33
	38-40	19	31.66
	40-56	24	40.00
Edücatiön	Primary	9	15.00
	Middle	12	20.00
	Matric	10	16.67
	Seniör Secöndary	20	33.33
	Gradüate	9	15.00
Operatiöнал land hölding	Marginal (< 2.5)	6	10.00
	Small (2.5-5)	5	8.33
	Semi-mediüm (5-10)	15	25.00
	Mediüm (10-25)	21	35.00
	Large (> 25)	13	21.67
Annüal gröss incöme	Löw (< 420048.89)	19	31.66
	Mediüm (420048.89-600159.09)	28	46.66
	High (>600159.09)	13	21.66
Extensiön cöntacts	Löw (< 7.42)	20	33.33
	Mediüm (7.42-8.67)	26	43.33
	High (> 8.67)	14	23.33
Mass media expösüre	Löw (< 9.93)	4	6.66
	Mediüm (9.93-11.24)	34	56.66
	High (> 11.24)	22	36.66
Innövative pröness	Löw (< 14.93)	15	25.00
	Mediüm (14.93-18.53)	20	33.33
	High (> 18.53)	25	41.66
Scientific örientatiön	Löw (< 10.23)	15	25.00
	Mediüm (10.23-11.30)	24	40.00
	High (> 11.30)	21	35.00
Risk örientatiön	Löw (< 13.81)	25	41.66
	Mediüm (13.81-15.31)	36	60.00
	High (> 15.31)	5	8.33
Ecölägical cönsciöüsness	Löw (< 14.49)	9	15.00
	Mediüm (14.49-17.00)	13	21.67
	High (> 17.00)	38	63.33
Ecönömic mötivatión	Löw (<12.70)	13	21.66
	Mediüm (12.70-17.75)	20	33.33
	High (>17.75)	27	45.00

temperatüre due tö straw büarning redüces the bacterial and füngal pöpülatiön in the söil. Twö third öf the extensiön persönnel (66%) had a neütral view while majöriety öf the farmer respöndents (80%) agreed that weeds can be cönrölld by öpen straw büarning. Althöügh they agreed that büarning may nöt cönröl the weed pröblems, the extensiön persönnel mentiöned that it is a cömmön excüse given by

farmers tö bürn straw. As büarning öf straw raises the söil temperatüre üp tö 33.8 tö 42.2° C (1 per cm depth) (Güpta et al 2004), it can be cöncüded that the büarning öf the straw döes nöt eradicate all the weeds present in the söil. Majöriety öf the extensiön persönnel (84.67%) and aböüt twö third öf the farmer respöndents (63.33%) agreed that büarning öf straw decreases the prödüctivity öf the söil. Half öf the

**Table 4.** Distribütiön öf respöndents accöding tö their perceptiön ön the effect öf öpen bürning practices in rice wheat cröpping pattern in Pünjab

Statements	Extensiön persönnel (n=150)				Farmer respöndents (n=60)				Z-valüe
	A (%)	PA (%)	D (%)	MS	A (%)	PA (%)	D (%)	MS	
Bürning öf straw depletes the impörtant söil nütrients	141 (94.00)	9 (6.00)	—	1.1	41 (68.33)	10 (16.67)	9 (15.00)	1.4	3.92*
Pest and pathögens can be cönrölld by straw bürning	50 (33.33)	74 (49.33)	26 (17.33)	2.2	47 (78.32)	9 (15.0)	4 (6.67)	2.7	5.89*
Open straw bürning redüces örganic carbön cöntent in söil	120 (80.00)	30 (20.00)	—	1.2	53 (88.33)	5 (8.33)	2 (3.33)	1.2	0.75
Increase in temperaturë düe tö straw bürning redüces the bacterial and füngal pöpülatiön in söil	79 (52.67)	59 (39.33)	12 (8.00)	1.6	39 (65.00)	13 (21.67)	8 (13.34)	1.5	0.65
Weeds can be cönrölld by öpen straw bürning	12 (8.00)	99 (66.00)	39 (26.00)	1.8	48 (80.00)	9 (15.00)	3 (5.00)	1.3	6.84*
Bürning öf straw decreases the prödüctivity öf the söil	127 (84.67)	23 (15.33)	—	1.6	38 (63.33)	20 (33.33)	2 (3.33)	1.3	2.58*
Emissiön öf töxic chemicals fröm bürning öf cröp stübbles can becöme pötential carcinögens	76 (50.66)	65 (43.33)	9 (6.00)	1.4	45 (75.00)	11 (18.33)	4 (6.67)	1.3	1.07
Stübbles bürning resülts in the depletiön öf öxygen layer in the envirönment	98 (65.33)	44 (29.33)	8 (5.33)	2.2	28 (46.67)	25 (41.67)	7 (11.67)	1.7	4.76*
Smöke prödüced düe tö öpen residüe bürning highly effects the health öf pregnant wömen and children	85 (56.67)	56 (37.33)	9 (6.00)	2.0	30 (50.00)	18 (30.00)	12 (20.00)	1.7	3.06*
Inhaling öf fine particülate matter released fröm stübbles bürning triggers symptöms öf asthma, brönchitis and öther respiratöry pröblems	122 (81.33)	28 (18.67)	—	1.2	58 (96.67)	2 (3.33)	—	1.0	3.87*
Smöke fröm stübbles bürning causes eye irritatiön and chest cöngestiön	119 (79.33)	31 (30.67)	—	1.2	48 (80.00)	10 (16.67)	2 (3.33)	1.2	0.36
Bürning öf cröp stübbles decreases the yield öf milk in milch animals	31 (20.67)	64 (42.67)	55 (36.67)	1.2	50 (83.33)	7 (11.66)	3 (5.00)	1.7	4.00*
Löss öf biödiversity is caused by pöllütiön fröm straw bürning	81 (54.00)	54 (36.00)	15 (10.00)	1.5	44 (73.33)	13 (21.67)	3 (5.00)	1.3	1.30*
Smöke released fröm öpen bürning öf straw decreases visibility	128 (85.33)	8 (5.33)	14 (9.33)	1.5	30 (50.00)	18 (30.00)	12 (20.00)	1.5	0.38
Bürning öf straw hampers air traffic	56 (37.33)	86 (57.33)	8 (5.33)	1.9	10 (16.67)	30 (50.00)	20 (33.33)	1.2	8.57*
Bürning öf straw causes röad accidents	76 (50.67)	71 (47.33)	3 (2.00)	1.2	14 (23.33)	31 (51.67)	15 (25.00)	1.4	3.17*
Emissiön öf gasses like methane, nitrögen öxide and ammönia fröm straw bürning causes severe pöllütiön	85 (56.67)	62 (41.33)	3 (2.00)	1.7	45 (75.00)	10 (16.67)	5 (8.33)	2.2	4.82*
Bürning öf cröp residüe cönrübütes green höuse effect	87 (58.00)	57 (38.00)	6 (4.00)	1.6	38 (63.33)	14 (23.33)	8 (13.33)	1.3	2.66*
Smöke fröm straw bürning cömbines with fög tö för harmful smög	80 (53.33)	54 (36.00)	16 (10.67)	1.7	40 (66.67)	12 (20.00)	8 (13.33)	1.5	0.62
Bürning öf straw deströys förest trees	5 (3.33)	48 (32.00)	97 (64.66)	2.5	15 (25.00)	35 (58.33)	10 (16.67)	2.0	4.69*
Dispersiön öf cömbüstiön ash by wind fröm öpen straw bürning is a pröblem tö höusehöld gööds	59 (39.33)	46 (30.67)	45 (30.00)	1.7	49 (81.67)	11 (18.33)	—	1.9	2.28*

\*\*Significant at 0.01 level, A=Agree, PA=Partially agree, D=Disagree, MS=Mean Scöre

extension personnel (50.66%) and three fourth of the farmer respondents (75%) agreed that emission of toxic chemicals from burning of crop stubble can become potential carcinogens. The extension personnel (65.33%) and less than half of the farmer respondents (46.67%) agreed to the depletion of oxygen layer due to straw burning. More than half of the extension personnel (56.67%) and half of the farmer respondents agreed that smoke produced due to open crop residue burning highly effect the health of pregnant woman and children. These findings were similar to Henderick and Williams (2000) who stated that incomplete combustion produces carbon monoxide and carcinogenic hydrocarbons which could perhaps cause cancer. A large majority of the extension personnel (81.33%) and farmer respondents (96.67%) agreed symptoms of asthma, bronchitis and other respiratory problems triggered by inhaling fine particulate matter from stubble burning. The extension personnel (79.33%) and farmer respondents (80%) agreed that smoke from stubble burning causes eye irritation and chest congestion. This was the reason that most of the villagers in that area experience different types of respiratory health issues during the peak period of straw burning. The findings were in line with that of Singh et al (2008) and Kumar and Kumar (2010). Less than half of the extension personnel (42.67%) had a neutral response while majority of the farmer respondents (83.33%) agreed that there is decrease of milk in milch animals due to burning of crop stubble. The extension personnel had a neutral view since there was no such cases reported to them on this issue but through experience the farmer respondent expresses that smoke from straw burning affects the health of animals causing decrease in milk production. Similar findings were

reported by Gadde et al (2009). More than half of the extension personnel and nearly three fourth of the farmer respondents agreed that pollution from straw burning caused loss of biodiversity and smoke from open burning of straw decreases visibility. A neutral response on the point that burning of straw hampers air traffic was expressed by 57.33 per cent of extension personnel and half of the farmer respondents. The farmer respondents remarked that they have not witnessed any air traffic caused by straw burning and also that the airports were situated far away from the farmers' field. Therefore, the smoke does not reach the higher level of the atmosphere and disturb the air traffic. The half of the extension personnel and only less than one fourth of the farmer respondents (23.33%) agreed that burning of straw causes road accidents. More than half of the extension personnel (56.67%) and three fourth of the farmer respondents (75%) agreed that emission of gasses like methane, nitrogen oxide and ammonia from straw burning cause severe pollution.

Similarly, about 58 per cent of the extension personnel and 63.33 per cent of the farmer respondents agreed that burning of crop residue contributes to greenhouse effect. Nearly half of the extension personnel (53.33%) and two third (66.67%) of the farmer respondents agreed that smoke from straw burning combines with fog to form harmful smog. Similar findings were reported by Henderick and Williams (2000), Gupta et al (2004), Bhattacharyya (2012) and Silalertruksa and Gheewala (2013). Nearly 40 per cent of the extension personnel and 81.67 per cent of the farmer respondents agreed that dispersion of combustion ash by wind from open straw burning becomes a problem to household goods.

**Table 5.** Overall distribution of respondents according to their perception on the effect of open burning practices in rice wheat cropping pattern in Punjab

Items	Extension personnel (n=150)			Farmer respondents (n=60)			Z-value
	No E (%)	NE (%)	MS	No E (%)	NE (%)	MS	
Plant health	—	150 (100.00)	1.0	—	60 (100.00)	1.0	NA
Air	9 (6.00)	141 (94.00)	1.1	10 (16.67)	50 (83.33)	1.0	1.23
Human health	—	150 (100.00)	1.0	7 (11.66)	53 (88.33)	1.1	1.72
Animal health	7 (4.67)	143 (95.33)	1.0	10 (16.67)	50 (83.33)	1.1	1.72
Biodiversity	11 (7.34)	139 (92.67)	1.1	12 (20.00)	48 (80.00)	1.2	2.25*
vehicular traffic	34 (22.67)	116 (77.33)	1.2	17 (28.33)	43 (71.67)	1.3	0.83
Soil health	—	150 (100.00)	1.0	14 (23.33)	46 (76.66)	1.2	3.87*

\*\*Significant at 0.01 level, No E=No effect, NE=Negative effect, MS=Mean score {(Score-mean)/standard deviation}

The mean and z value of the perception between the extension personnel and farmer respondents on various items related to the effect of open burning in rice and wheat cropping system. The result revealed that there was a significant difference in the perception of farmer respondents as compared to that of the extension personnel on the statements that burning of straw depletes the important soil nutrients (mean 1.4;  $z=3.92$ ), weeds can be controlled by open straw burning (mean 2.7;  $z=5.89$ ), burning of crop stubble decreases the yield of milk in milch cows (mean=1.7;  $z=4.00$ ), burning of straw causes road accidents (mean=1.4;  $z=3.17$ ), emission of gasses like methane, nitrogen oxide and ammonia from straw burning causes severe pollution (mean=2.2;  $z=4.82$ ) and dispersion of combustion ash by wind from open straw burning is a problem to household goods (mean=1.9;  $z=2.28$ ). While the result also revealed that there was a significant difference and the perception of extension personnel as compared to that of the farmer respondents on the statements that weeds can be controlled by open straw burning (mean=1.8;  $z=6.84$ ), burning of straw decreases the productivity of the soil (mean =1.6;  $z=2.58$ ), stubble burning results in the depletion of oxygen layer in the environment (mean=2.2;  $z=4.76$ ), smoke produced due to open crop burning highly affects the health of pregnant women and children (mean=2.0;  $z=3.06$ ), inhaling of fine particulate matter released from stubble burning triggers symptoms of asthma, bronchitis and other respiratory problems (mean=1.2;  $z=3.87$ ), loss of biodiversity is caused by pollution from straw burning (mean=1.5;  $z=1.30$ ), burning of straw hampers air traffic (mean=1.9;  $z=8.57$ ), emission of gasses like methane, nitrogen oxide and ammonia from straw burning causes severe pollution (mean=1.6;  $z=2.66$ ) and burning of straw destroys forest trees (mean=2.5;  $z=4.69$ ).

There was a significant difference in the perception between farmer respondents and extension personnel regarding the overall effect of open burning practices on biodiversity ( $z=2.25$ ) and soil health ( $z=3.87$ ). In both the statements the farmer respondents perceived more (mean=1.2) as compared to the extension personnel.

**Relationship of various independent variables with the perception of the extension personnel in Punjab:** No significant relationship was between the perception of the extension personnel and any of the independent variables under study (Table 6).

**Relationship of various independent variables with the perception of the farmer respondents in Punjab:** A positive and significant relationship was found between the perception of the farmer respondents and variable viz. education and ecological consciousness (Table 6)..

**Table 6.** Relationship of various independent variables with the perception of the extension personnel respondents

Variable	r value
Age	0.028 <sup>NS</sup>
Education	0.045 <sup>NS</sup>
Service experience	0.022 <sup>NS</sup>

NS=Non-significant

**Table 7.** Relationship of various independent variables with the perception of the farmer respondents

Variable	r value
Age	0.147
Education	0.456*
Operational land holding	0.033
Annual income	-0.006
Extension contact	0.042
Mass media exposure	-0.027
Innovative proneness	-0.103
Scientific orientation	0.058
Risk orientation	-0.179
Ecological consciousness	0.471*
Economic motivation	0.077

\*Significant at 0.05 level

Röcö et al (2015) also observed that education of the farmer respondents was significant with perception in and their results reveal that younger, more educated producers and those who own their land tend to have a clearer perception of climate change than older, less educated, or tenant farmers. This signifies that higher the education and ecological consciousness of the farmers, higher the perception. Other variables like age, operational land holding, annual income, extension contact, mass media exposure, innovative proneness, scientific orientation, risk orientation and economic motivation was not significantly correlated with perception of the farmer respondents. Similar studies by Baksh et al (2015) also revealed that age of farmer respondents was not significant with perception.

## CONCLUSION

The extension personnel and farmer respondent, highly perceive straw burning as a contributor to pollution and has a negative effect on various aspects of soil and human health. The education level and the ecological consciousness were seen to be significantly correlated with perception. As a stakeholder, the farmers should be educated on the detrimental effect of straw burning to inculcate an environmental safe agriculture for a sustainable future generation.

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## Use of Edible Coating to Enhance Shelf Life of Tomato (*Lycopersicon esculentum* L.)

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**Abstract:** Present experiment was conducted with an aim to study the effect of plant based edible coating to enhance the shelf life of tomato fruits maintaining its quality under minimal processing because rapid decay and moisture loss causes a huge post-harvest loss of tomato within a short period. Tomato fruits were coated with eight treatments comprising application of  $\text{CaCl}_2$  1%, Ethrel 0.1%, Na-alginate 1.5%, Na-Benzoate 0.1%, KMS 0.1%, *Aloe vera* extract and okra extract all supplemented with edible coating (EC) formulation (carboxymethyl cellulose 1%, ascorbic acid 0.5%, glycerin 0.2%, calcium chloride 0.2% along with chitosan 2%) and pH was adjusted to 4.0 with citric acid. The quality parameters like TSS, total sugars, reducing sugar, non-reducing sugar, vitamin C were improved continuously upto 15 – 20 days under refrigerated storage condition except untreated control and degraded thereafter. However, among all the treatments, application of EC +  $\text{CaCl}_2$  1% was the best edible coating having potential to preserve valuable quality attributes for increasing shelf life of tomato fruits showing minimum physiological loss of weight and reduced the ripening percentage for longer duration followed by application of KMS, *Aloe vera* extract and okra extract.

**Keywords:** Edible coating, Plant extract, Quality, Ripening, Shelf life, Tomato

Tomato (*Lycopersicon esculentum* L. Syn. *Solanum lycopersicum* Mill.) a herbaceous vegetable under family Solanaceae, has a relatively short post-harvest life since many processes including transpiration, post-harvest diseases, increased ripening and senescence affect quality loss after harvesting since it is a climacteric fruit (Zapata et al 2008). Major post-harvest losses of tomatoes are due to fungal infection, physiological disorders, physiological loss of weight and physical injuries which result in the early deterioration of fruit quality (Javanmardi and Kubota 2006, Zapata et al 2008, Dhaliwal et al 2010, Kumar et al 2013, Meena et al 2014). Among the various post-harvest management practices, recently, edible coatings have been developed to extend the shelf life of fruits and vegetables. This environment friendly technology wraps the film closely on surface of fruits preventing respiration and transpiration loss, thus, slowing down senescence. In the present experiment, plant based natural extracts like *Aloe vera*, okra extract having nutraceutical values have been used to see their effectiveness to reduce post-harvest losses. There is a worldwide trend to explore new alternatives that control post-harvest pathogenic diseases to avoid negative and side effects on human health due to excessive application of synthetic chemicals. In addition, the emergence of fungicide-resistant strains of microorganisms and the continuous rigorous regulation of fungicide use and disposal has reduced the possibility to conceive control strategies based

on chemicals. Therefore, increasing shelf life of tomato with different method of edible coating and to maintain the quality is the need of future. The biodegradable nature of natural compounds derived from animal and plants have potential and now are being explored by researchers. Among these, chitosan, a high molecular polymer, nontoxic, bioactive agent has become a useful coating compound due to its fungicidal effects. With the above views, the plant based extracts viz., *Aloe vera* and okra extract have been used along with other chemicals in the present experiment to see their effectiveness to reduce post-harvest losses and enhance shelf life of tomato with maintaining quality.

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

**Collection of sample:** Tomato fruits (var. Roma) harvested at uniform physiological maturity stage (fully mature but not ripe stage) free from injuries, insect pest diseases were collected from crops grown uniformly without any fertilizers. The collected fruits were washed with distilled water and covered with sterile tissue paper to soak the moisture present on fruit surface. The fruits were grouped into three replications in each of treatment and kept for analysis of qualities upto 30 days after storage (DAS) until the complete decay.

***Aloe vera* extract:** Leaves of *Aloe vera* were harvested and washed with fresh water followed by a mild chlorine solution (25%). *Aloe vera* gel matrix was then separated from the

outer cortex of leaves with the help of a sharp knife and tea spoon and this colorless hydro parenchyma was ground in a blender and fresh *Aloe vera* extract was obtained by removing the fibres. Approximately, 772 g gel was extracted from 1.471 kg leaves (52.48% recovery). The gel matrix was pasteurized at 70 °C for 45 minutes and was cooled immediately and ascorbic acid (2.0 g L<sup>-1</sup>, citric acid (4.6 g L<sup>-1</sup>) was added to maintain the pH at 4.0 and thus, the gel prepared stored in brown amber bottle to prevent oxidation (Adetunji et al 2012). The final *Aloe vera* based edible coating was prepared by mixing distilled water (100 ml) and *Aloe vera* juice (300 ml) (1:3 ratio), boiled with continuous stirring for uniform dispersion and filtered for purification (Chauhan et al 2014). Tomatoes were coated by dipping the fruits in prepared *Aloe vera* extracts supplemented with edible coating (EC) having 2% chitosan.

**Okra extract:** Fresh okra (*Abelmoschus esculentus* L.) fruits were washed and seeds were removed prior to extraction of mucilage. Okra fruits were then sliced with knife and boiled at 100 °C for 1 hour for extraction of mucilage with addition of some amount of sterile distilled water to prevent direct heating in contact with boiling pan. Extracted mucilage (275 ml extract from 1 kg okra fruits i.e. 27.5% recovery) was filtered through muslin cloth and mucilage was collected in amber bottle. Final solution was prepared by adding sterile distilled water and okra mucilage in 1:5 ratio before coating of tomato fruits aseptically along with EC solution.

**Experimental design:** The experiment was laid out in completely randomized design (CRD) with 8 treatments and 3 replications under laboratory condition. The edible coating (EC) treatments were T<sub>0</sub>-Control, T<sub>1</sub>-EC + CaCl<sub>2</sub> 1%, T<sub>2</sub>-EC + Ethrel 0.1%, T<sub>3</sub>-EC + Na-alginate 1.5%, T<sub>4</sub>-EC + Na-Benzate 0.1%, T<sub>5</sub>-EC + KMS 0.1%, T<sub>6</sub>-EC + *Aloe vera* extract, T<sub>7</sub>-EC + Okra extract. Chitosan @ 2% as antifungal agent was added to all the treatment solutions equally. The treated fruits were kept inside simple polystyrene boxes under refrigerated condition. EC was prepared with the following composition Carboxymethyl cellulose 1%, ascorbic acid 0.5%, glycerin, calcium chloride, chitosan @ 2% and pH was adjusted to 4.0 with citric acid.

**Physiological loss of weight and ripening:** The physiological loss of weight (PLW %) of tomato fruits was calculated by considering the differences between initial fresh weight and final weight of tested fruits after drying divided by their initial weight and multiplied by 100 at corresponding date of observation. Ripening of tomato was identified by its color, softness, with the help of color chart and expressed as percentage value.

**Analysis of quality parameters:** The quality parameters (titratable acidity, vitamin C, total sugars, TSS, reducing and

non-reducing sugar) were studied in the laboratory of Department of Horticulture, following standard method as suggested by AOAC (2000).

**Microscopic study of cell damage:** The outer skin cells of both damaged and undamaged fruits were observed microscopically under Electronic microscope equipped with monitor display (Model- M1120/B.R. Biochemicals, USA). The outer layer of skin was removed carefully and cut into small pieces. Suitable cut pieces placed on cover slide with a drop of glycerol and covered with cover slip followed by air drying.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Effect of edible coatings on physiological loss of weight and ripening:

There was a significant variation in physiological loss in weight (PLW) and was maximum (Table 1) at 30 days after storage (DAS) when the fruits were kept as untreated control. At 15 DAS, the PLW was minimum under EC + CaCl<sub>2</sub> 1% followed by application of KMS, *Aloe vera* and Okra extract. The weight loss percentage increased significantly with the ripening and control fruits displayed rapid increase in weight loss (%) as compared to all other treatments due to uncontrolled ripening in untreated tomato fruits which might be due to a sudden increase in ethylene production and respiration rate (Haile 2018). The higher respiration rate also resulted in higher transpiration of water from the fruit surface leading to increase in percentage of physiological loss in weight. The mucilaginous plant extracts (Okra and *Aloe vera* gel) are basically hetero polysaccharides which act as hydrophilic coating and reduce the moisture loss. The minimum ripening was in EC + CaCl<sub>2</sub> 1% followed by EC + Na alginate 1.5 and application of *Aloe vera* and Okra extract. The fruits under uncoated control showed the maximum ripening (85.71%) at 15 DAS. All the fruits ripened (100% ripening) under the control at 20 days after storage and all tomato fruits ripened at 30 days after storage irrespective of treatments.

**Change in biochemical characters:** The acidity (in terms of citric acid) increased in all treatments during initial stages of growth and development. However, the change was non-significant, but the minimum was (0.55%) under T<sub>6</sub> at 15 DAS. The acidity increased in control followed by T<sub>2</sub>, T<sub>3</sub>, T<sub>4</sub> and T<sub>7</sub> at 15 DAS. However, there was a clear cut tendency of decreasing acidity in all treatments with the process of storage after 15 days of storage. The fruit acidity increased continuously in all the treatments might be due to the fact that the fruits were harvested at mature but not ripened stage (Batu 2004, Moneeruzzaman et al 2009). Bhattarai and Gautam (2006) observed that during storage, the fruit itself might utilize the acids so that acidity in the fruits during

störage periõds may decrease after a certain days and in certain treatments. Wills et al (2007) alsõ reported the decrease in tõtal acidity and increase in tõtal sũgars and TSS dũring stõrage. The increasing trend in vitamin C cõntent cõntinũed tõ 15 days õf stõrage and maximũm vitamin C (34.44 mg 100g<sup>-1</sup>) was estimated in T<sub>1</sub> fõllõwed by T<sub>3</sub>, T<sub>5</sub>, T<sub>6</sub>, T<sub>7</sub> and T<sub>0</sub> (Table 1). The tendency õf decreasing vitamin C in all the treatments was õbserved after 15 days õf stõrage and cõntinũed tõ 30 days. The vitamin C and titratable acidity cõntent õf tõmatõ frũits increased with matũrity and reached the peak at 15 DAS and started tõ decrease thereafter. The micrõscõpic viewed area õf skin layer õf frũits ũnder T<sub>1</sub> prõved that the cell walls were intact even after 20 days õf stõrage.

The maximũm TSS (6.50 °Brix) was estimated in T<sub>1</sub> fõllõwed by T<sub>6</sub>, T<sub>7</sub>, T<sub>5</sub>, T<sub>3</sub>, T<sub>2</sub>, T<sub>0</sub> at 15 DAS. All treatments shõwed decrease in TSS after 15 DAS (ranging frõm 3.90 tõ 4.65 °Brix). Cramer et al (2001) õbserved that mõst õf tõmatõ

sõld in the market attained their peak TSS cõntent earlier õf 15 DAS while, prõcessing tõmatõ varieties shõwed highest TSS at 20 DAS and afterwards, TSS decreased. This increase and sũbseqũent decreasing pattern õf TSS after 15 DAS might be dũe tõ slõwer rate õf hydrõlysis õf carbõhydrates. The general trend õf initial increase in tõtal sõlũble sõlids fõllõwed by a decrease was alsõ reported by Eskin (2000) whõ explained that starch is accũmũlated in green tõmatões which start tõ fall with the õnset õf ripening and this decrease is accõpanied by rising sõlũble sõlids. Increase in TSS õf tõmatõ frũits cõũld be dũe tõ excessive mõistũre lõss which increases cõncentratiõn as well as the hydrõlysis õf carbõhydrates tõ sõlũble sũgars (Nath et al 2011). The maximũm tõtal sũgars was õbserved in T<sub>1</sub> (5.09 %) fõllõwed by applicatiõn õf õkra extract (T<sub>7</sub>) at 15 DAS and minimũm in cõntrõl. Bũt, the tõtal sũgar cõntent cõntinũed tõ increase even at 30 DAS, the maximũm tõtal sũgars (5.92%) at 30 days õf stõrage was in EC + CaCl<sub>2</sub> 1% fõllõwed by EC +

**Table 1.** Perfõrmance õf edible cõating treatments õn põst-harvest qũality õf tõmatõ frũits.

Treatments	Physiõlõgical lõss õf weight (%)*		Ripening (%)*		Acidity (%)			Vitamin C (mg/100g)		
	15 days**	30 days	15 days	30 days	0 days	15 days	30 days	0 days	15 days	30 days
	T <sub>0</sub> (Cõntrõl)	13.60	17.00	85.71	100	0.20	0.71	0.54	10.72	24.00
T <sub>1</sub> (EC + CaCl <sub>2</sub> 1%)	8.00	10.10	42.86	100	0.28	0.65	0.48	11.65	34.44	24.45
T <sub>2</sub> (EC + Ethrel 0.1%)	12.97	13.60	71.43	100	0.18	0.65	0.50	15.77	18.00	12.08
T <sub>3</sub> (EC + Na-alginate 1.5%)	9.67	13.80	57.14	100	0.22	0.80	0.62	15.67	28.00	21.71
T <sub>4</sub> (EC + Na-Benzõate 0.1%)	10.00	12.30	71.43	100	0.30	0.74	0.53	16.71	21.66	15.27
T <sub>5</sub> (EC + KMS 0.1%)	8.23	11.70	71.43	100	0.35	0.61	0.57	12.67	24.33	20.72
T <sub>6</sub> (EC + <i>Alovera gel</i> )	8.53	12.63	57.14	100	0.20	0.55	0.56	10.69	26.00	19.82
T <sub>7</sub> (EC + Okra extract)	8.50	11.20	57.14	100	0.28	0.74	0.67	14.72	23.33	18.54
CD (p=0.05)	1.56	2.34	5.56	NS	NS	NS	NS	1.99	6.25	3.21

EC-Carbõxymethyl cellũlose 1% + ascorbic acid 0.5%+ glycerin+ calciũ chlõride+ chitõsan @ 2%, \*Cõnsidering physiõlõgical lõss -0% and ripening -0% at 0 days õf stõrage, \*\* days õf stõrage

**Table 2.** Effect õf edible cõating õn frũit qũality õf tõmatõ

Treatments	TSS (Brix)			Tõtal sũgars (%)			Redũcing sũgar (%)			Nõn -redũcing sũgar (%)		
	0 days*	15 days	30 days	0 days	15 days	30 days	0 days	15 days	30 days	0 days	15 days	30 days
T <sub>0</sub> (Cõntrõl)	4.70	4.93	2.05	3.80	4.39	2.00	2.00	2.67	1.00	1.35	1.27	0.55
T <sub>1</sub> (EC + CaCl <sub>2</sub> @ 1%)	5.40	6.50	4.67	3.85	5.09	5.92	2.07	2.80	3.38	1.33	1.84	2.09
T <sub>2</sub> (EC + Ethrel @ 0.1%)	4.70	5.10	4.10	3.93	4.58	5.28	2.00	2.27	3.09	1.48	1.86	1.74
T <sub>3</sub> (EC + Na-alginate @ 1.5%)	4.60	5.20	3.90	3.95	4.76	5.26	2.03	2.63	3.16	1.47	1.68	1.65
T <sub>4</sub> (EC + Na-Benzõate @ 0.1%)	4.10	4.70	4.10	4.20	4.77	5.29	1.97	2.40	2.97	1.78	1.92	1.87
T <sub>5</sub> (EC + KMS @ 0.1%)	4.80	5.30	4.65	4.16	4.57	5.43	1.83	2.52	3.34	1.88	1.6	1.64
T <sub>6</sub> (EC + <i>Alovera gel</i> )	5.10	5.80	4.60	3.90	4.67	5.44	1.73	2.53	3.19	1.72	1.69	1.8
T <sub>7</sub> (EC + Okra extract)	4.50	5.40	4.57	4.04	4.77	5.45	1.87	2.50	3.23	1.72	1.82	1.77
CD (p=0.05)	0.88	1.25	0.78	0.42	NS	0.51	NS	0.79	NS	0.38	0.48	0.51

EC-Carbõxymethyl cellũlose 1% + ascorbic acid 0.5%+ glycerin+ calciũ chlõride+ chitõsan @ 2%, \* days õf stõrage

KMS 0.1% and minimum total sugars was in control (5.05%) (Table 2). Total sugars in all treatments increased continuously up to 30 days of storage and  $T_1$  recorded the maximum total sugars in all stages. The breakdown of polysaccharides into water soluble sugar might be a reason for increase in sugar content with the ripening. The increase in reducing sugar in all treatments continued up to 30 days after storage (Table 2). The maximum reducing sugar (3.38%) was observed in EC +  $\text{CaCl}_2$  1% followed by  $T_3$  at 30 DAS. There was an increasing trend also in the non-reducing sugar in all treatments at initial storage period. The maximum non-reducing sugar was observed under in EC + Na benzoate at 15 DAS and minimum non-reducing sugar (0.55%) was in control. Preeti et al (2016) also found similar results while experimenting on ber.

### CONCLUSION

The application of 1%  $\text{CaCl}_2$  along with edible coating (EC) formulation was the best for improving shelf life as well as maintaining quality of tomato since Ca might influenced cell wall maintenance. *Aloe vera* extract and Okra mucilaginous extract are a potential substance for coating to increase the shelf life of tomato with the added advantage of their organic nature, mucilaginous and additional nutraceutical qualities which would even fortify the nutritional value of the tomatoes besides preventing the harmful effects of the chemical coatings on human health.

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# Effect of Seed Treatment on Seed Germination and Vigour Parameters in Seeds Subjected to Salt Stress in Tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.)

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**Abstract:** In the present study, various seed treatments were used to improve the seed germination in tomato (Punjab Ratta and Roma). The salinity affects seed germination and seedling vigour parameters adversely. Seeds were treated with different concentrations of salicylic acid (0.5 and 1mM) and hydrogen peroxide (20 and 50mM) at 25°C. After 14 days of germination, seedlings were collected and then various physiological and biochemical estimations were done. Seed treatment with 1mM Salicylic acid and 50mM hydrogen peroxide were more effective than SA 0.5mM and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> 20mM. Biochemical parameters i.e. total soluble sugars and proteins increased by all the seed treatments. Peroxidase, catalase, superoxide dismutase and malondialdehyde content increased following all the seed treatments. Thus, SA (0.5mM and 1mM) and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (20mM and 50mM) helped to mitigate the adverse effects of salinity by increasing the activity of antioxidant enzymes.

**Keywords:** Tomato, Salinity stress, Salicylic acid, Hydrogen peroxide

Tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) is an annual vegetable crop native to tropical central and South America belonging to family Solanaceae. Tomato is sensitive to moderate levels of salt in the soil (Oztekin and Tuzel 2011) is one of the important environmental stress that largely affects the growth, nutritional status and productivity of species worldwide. Salinity becomes a matter of concern if "excessive" levels or concentration of soluble salts occurs in soil due to mismanaged irrigation water. Exogenous application of plant growth substances and various chemicals can be used to improve seed vigor parameters in plants under stress conditions (Kaūr and Gupta 2016). Salicylic acid (SA) chemically known as ortho-hydroxy benzoic acid and many other salicylates affects many physiological and biochemical activities of plants that acts as an endogenous growth regulator (Javaheri et al 2012). Hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) is a natural plant metabolite that accumulates in plant tissues in the absence of its natural scavengers (catalase and peroxidase reactive molecule plays a role in plants developmental physiological processes and also helps the plant to resist stress. Hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) in addition to some ROS (superoxide radical, hydroxyl radical etc) accumulate during the early stages of germination and in seed during imbibitions, majorly as a result of their increased extracellular and intracellular production (Wojtyla et al 2016). Hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>)

increases the growth and physiological phenomenon by preventing oxidative damage and enhancing the capacity to withstand salt stress (Hemalatha et al 2017).

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

The present investigation was conducted at Punjab Agricultural University, Ludhiana in 2016-17. Tomato seeds of Punjab Ratta and Roma were surface sterilized by 0.1 % solution of mercuric chloride, followed by thorough washing with distilled water to avoid any fungal infection. To stimulate salinity stress, the germination papers in petridishes were moistened with solutions of different salinity levels (Control, 25, 50, 75 and 100mM NaCl). The petridishes were placed in an incubator at 25°C and 60±15 % relative humidity for 14 days to record the effect of salinity on germination parameters. The seeds were soaked for 2 hrs in solution of different concentrations of SA (0.5 and 1mM) and hydrogen peroxide (20 and 50mM) and these treated seeds were subjected to salinity stress to see the effect on various physiological parameters after 14 days of germination.

Vigour Index I = Germination (%) x seedling length (cm);  
Vigour Index II = Germination (%) x seedling dry weight (g),  
Speed of germination (Maguire, 1962)

It was computed using 25 seeds, using TP method in triplicate in petridishes. Daily observations of emerged seedlings were recorded till the final count day.

Speed of germination =  $[n_1/d_1 + n_2-n_1/d_2 + \dots + n_n - n_{n-1}/d_n] = \Sigma n/d$

Where n = number of seeds germinated, d = number of days taken for germination.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The seed treatments of SA (0.5 and 1mM) and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (20 and 50mM) improved the germination rates as compared to control and hydrated seeds. The hydration of seeds for 2 hours increased the percent germination in both the seed lot of Punjab Ratta and Röma but the effect was more pronounced in Röma. Hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) increases the growth and physiological phenomenon by preventing oxidative damage and enhancing the capacity to withstand salt stress (Hemalatha et al 2017). SA is applied exogenously increase the salt tolerance ability of pumpkin (Rafiqe et al 2011). The great reduction of seedling growth occurred with NaCl treatments in cabbage, mustard and water spinach compared to control (Sarker et al 2014). Seed invigoration by salicylic acid has been reported in earlier studies in response to various abiotic stresses (Shruti et al 2016, Kaūr and Gupta 2017, Kaūr and Gupta 2017a, b, Parcha and Gupta 2017a, b)

With the increasing salinity levels the fresh weight of the seeds reduced as a result of reduced seedling length. Therefore vigour index I reduced with the increasing salinity levels (Table 2 and 3). Both the concentrations of SA (0.5 and 1mM) and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (20mm and 50mm) improved the vigour rates in Punjab Ratta and Röma. But the effect of 1mM SA and 50mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was more than 0.5mM SA and 20mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. The application of SA on plants under drought and salinity stress conditions lead to higher total biomass and seed vigour index (Shakirova et al 2003, Kabiri et al 2012). Higher vigour index was observed in chilli seeds treated with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> as compared to control (Nandi et al 2017).

With the rise in salinity levels the reduction in dry weight was observed and so the reduction in vigour index II was observed (Tables 4 and 5). The hydration of seeds for 2 hours increased the vigour index II but the effect was more pronounced in Röma. Both the concentrations of SA and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> improved the vigour rates in Punjab Ratta and Röma. Similar results are reported in cucumber (Kaūr and Gupta 2017), muskmelon (Kaūr and Gupta 2017a, b) and tinda seeds (Parcha and Gupta 2017b).

The germination speed was decline with the increasing salinity levels. The hydration of seeds for 2 hours increased the speed of germination but the effect was more pronounced in Röma. Both the concentrations of SA (0.5 and 1mM) and hydrogen peroxide (20 and 50mM) improved the speed of germination in Punjab Ratta and Röma. But the effect of 1mM SA and 50mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was more than 0.5mM SA and 20mM

**Table 1.** Effect of seed treatments on percent germination of tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) seeds under salt stress

Treatments	Punjab Ratta			Röma		
	25mm	50mm	75mm	25mm	50mm	75mm
Control	82.0 <sup>f</sup>	64.7 <sup>f</sup>	52.3 <sup>f</sup>	87.8 <sup>f</sup>	71.8 <sup>f</sup>	65.3 <sup>f</sup>
Hydration	84.7 <sup>e</sup>	68.7 <sup>e</sup>	55.3 <sup>e</sup>	92.3 <sup>e</sup>	77.5 <sup>e</sup>	69.2 <sup>e</sup>
SA(0.5mM)	86.7 <sup>d</sup>	72.3 <sup>d</sup>	58.3 <sup>d</sup>	92.7 <sup>d</sup>	82.5 <sup>d</sup>	78.7 <sup>d</sup>
SA(1mM)	89.0 <sup>c</sup>	73.7 <sup>c</sup>	60.3 <sup>c</sup>	93.0 <sup>c</sup>	83.8 <sup>c</sup>	79.8 <sup>c</sup>
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> (20mm)	93.3 <sup>b</sup>	76.3 <sup>b</sup>	63.3 <sup>b</sup>	93.7 <sup>b</sup>	85.8 <sup>b</sup>	81.3 <sup>b</sup>
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> (50mm)	95.3 <sup>a</sup>	79.7 <sup>a</sup>	70.3 <sup>a</sup>	95.3 <sup>a</sup>	86.5 <sup>a</sup>	83.3 <sup>a</sup>

Values with different letters indicate statistical difference at p< 0.05 (Tukey's-b test)

**Table 2.** Effect of seed treatments on seedling length (cm) of tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) seeds under salt stress

Treatments (mm)	Punjab Ratta			Röma		
	25mm	50mm	75mm	25mm	50mm	75mm
Control	5.9 <sup>f</sup>	8.2 <sup>f</sup>	5.8 <sup>f</sup>	11.0 <sup>e</sup>	8.8 <sup>e</sup>	4.3 <sup>f</sup>
Hydration	11.6 <sup>e</sup>	10.1 <sup>e</sup>	6.3 <sup>e</sup>	11.4 <sup>e</sup>	9.0 <sup>e</sup>	4.8 <sup>e</sup>
SA(0.5mM)	12.5 <sup>d</sup>	12.1 <sup>d</sup>	8.6 <sup>d</sup>	14.1 <sup>d</sup>	12.5 <sup>d</sup>	9.1 <sup>d</sup>
SA(1mM)	14.0 <sup>c</sup>	12.9 <sup>c</sup>	10.4 <sup>c</sup>	14.8 <sup>c</sup>	13.1 <sup>c</sup>	11.2 <sup>c</sup>
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> (20mm)	15.1 <sup>b</sup>	14.0 <sup>b</sup>	12.0 <sup>b</sup>	16.1 <sup>b</sup>	14.7 <sup>b</sup>	12.8 <sup>b</sup>
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> (50mm)	16.4 <sup>a</sup>	15.1 <sup>a</sup>	13.1 <sup>a</sup>	17.7 <sup>a</sup>	16.2 <sup>a</sup>	14.1 <sup>a</sup>

Values with different letters indicate statistical difference at p< 0.05 (Tukey's-b test)

**Table 3.** Effect of seed treatments on vigour index I of tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) seeds under salt stress

Treatments (mm)	Punjab Ratta			Röma		
	25mm	50mm	75mm	25mm	50mm	75mm
Control	736.2 <sup>f</sup>	400.0 <sup>f</sup>	302.0 <sup>f</sup>	1001.9 <sup>f</sup>	634.5 <sup>f</sup>	282.6 <sup>f</sup>
Hydration	834.8 <sup>e</sup>	600.0 <sup>e</sup>	486.0 <sup>e</sup>	1017.8 <sup>e</sup>	686.7 <sup>e</sup>	339.9 <sup>e</sup>
SA (0.5mM)	1017.6 <sup>d</sup>	800.0 <sup>d</sup>	490.6 <sup>d</sup>	1067.3 <sup>d</sup>	900.2 <sup>d</sup>	500.1 <sup>d</sup>
SA (1mM)	1114.0 <sup>c</sup>	900.0 <sup>c</sup>	530.4 <sup>c</sup>	1120.2 <sup>c</sup>	950.3 <sup>c</sup>	550.5 <sup>c</sup>
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> (20mm)	1280.3 <sup>b</sup>	1000.0 <sup>b</sup>	625.0 <sup>b</sup>	1375.2 <sup>b</sup>	1100.2 <sup>b</sup>	650.2 <sup>b</sup>
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> (50mm)	1367.0 <sup>a</sup>	1176.9 <sup>a</sup>	728.1 <sup>a</sup>	1400.2 <sup>a</sup>	1150.6 <sup>a</sup>	800.1 <sup>a</sup>

Values with different letters indicate statistical difference at p< 0.05; analysed by Tukey's-b

**Table 4.** Effect of seed treatments on dry weight of seedlings (mg) of tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) seeds under salt stress

Treatments	Punjab Ratta			Röma		
	25mm	50mm	75mm	25mm	50mm	75mm
Control	1.2 <sup>f</sup>	1.0 <sup>f</sup>	1.0 <sup>f</sup>	2.0 <sup>f</sup>	1.4 <sup>e</sup>	1.3 <sup>e</sup>
Hydration	1.5 <sup>e</sup>	1.3 <sup>e</sup>	1.1 <sup>e</sup>	2.4 <sup>e</sup>	1.6 <sup>e</sup>	1.5 <sup>e</sup>
SA(0.5mM)	2.0 <sup>d</sup>	1.9 <sup>d</sup>	1.7 <sup>d</sup>	3.8 <sup>d</sup>	2.6 <sup>d</sup>	1.8 <sup>d</sup>
SA(1mM)	2.6 <sup>c</sup>	2.1 <sup>c</sup>	1.9 <sup>c</sup>	4.0 <sup>c</sup>	3.2 <sup>c</sup>	2.0 <sup>c</sup>
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> (20mm)	3.1 <sup>b</sup>	2.5 <sup>b</sup>	2.0 <sup>b</sup>	4.6 <sup>b</sup>	3.8 <sup>b</sup>	2.7 <sup>b</sup>
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> (50mm)	4.1 <sup>a</sup>	3.9 <sup>a</sup>	2.6 <sup>a</sup>	5.1 <sup>a</sup>	4.6 <sup>a</sup>	3.3 <sup>a</sup>

Values with different letters indicate statistical difference at p< 0.05; analysed by Tukey's-b test

**Table 5.** Effect of seed treatments on vigour index II of tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) seeds under salt stress

Treatments	Punjab Ratta			Roma		
	25mm	50mm	75mm	25mm	50mm	75mm
Control	0.115 <sup>f</sup>	0.090 <sup>f</sup>	0.065 <sup>f</sup>	0.169 <sup>f</sup>	0.103 <sup>f</sup>	0.079 <sup>f</sup>
Hydration	0.121 <sup>e</sup>	0.096 <sup>e</sup>	0.071 <sup>e</sup>	0.219 <sup>e</sup>	0.126 <sup>e</sup>	0.106 <sup>e</sup>
SA(0.5mm)	0.132 <sup>d</sup>	0.098 <sup>d</sup>	0.082 <sup>d</sup>	0.261 <sup>d</sup>	0.161 <sup>d</sup>	0.148 <sup>d</sup>
SA(1mm)	0.142 <sup>c</sup>	0.100 <sup>c</sup>	0.089 <sup>c</sup>	0.301 <sup>c</sup>	0.201 <sup>c</sup>	0.191 <sup>c</sup>
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> (20mm)	0.154 <sup>b</sup>	0.101 <sup>b</sup>	0.090 <sup>b</sup>	0.352 <sup>b</sup>	0.251 <sup>b</sup>	0.210 <sup>b</sup>
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> (50mm)	0.171 <sup>a</sup>	0.119 <sup>a</sup>	0.102 <sup>a</sup>	0.453 <sup>a</sup>	0.321 <sup>a</sup>	0.240 <sup>a</sup>

Values with different letters indicate statistical difference at  $p < 0.05$ ; analysed by Tukey's-b test

**Table 6.** Effect of seed treatments on speed of germination of tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) seeds under salt stress

Treatments (mm)	Punjab Ratta			Roma		
	25mm	50mm	75mm	25mm	50mm	75mm
Control	2.8 <sup>f</sup>	2.2 <sup>f</sup>	1.6 <sup>f</sup>	3.0 <sup>f</sup>	3.0 <sup>f</sup>	2.5 <sup>e</sup>
Hydration	3.4 <sup>e</sup>	2.6 <sup>e</sup>	2.0 <sup>e</sup>	4.1 <sup>e</sup>	3.7 <sup>e</sup>	3.2 <sup>e</sup>
SA(0.5mm)	5.9 <sup>d</sup>	5.4 <sup>d</sup>	3.4 <sup>d</sup>	6.1 <sup>d</sup>	5.8 <sup>d</sup>	4.0 <sup>d</sup>
SA(1mm)	6.2 <sup>c</sup>	5.8 <sup>c</sup>	4.0 <sup>c</sup>	6.5 <sup>c</sup>	6.4 <sup>c</sup>	4.2 <sup>c</sup>
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> (20mm)	6.8 <sup>b</sup>	6.3 <sup>b</sup>	4.4 <sup>b</sup>	7.1 <sup>b</sup>	6.8 <sup>b</sup>	5.1 <sup>b</sup>
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> (50mm)	7.2 <sup>a</sup>	6.7 <sup>a</sup>	5.0 <sup>a</sup>	7.5 <sup>a</sup>	7.3 <sup>a</sup>	5.7 <sup>a</sup>

Values with different letters indicate statistical difference at  $p < 0.05$ ; analysed by Tukey's-b test

H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Genotypes that germinated earlier at elevated levels of salt stress are believed to be more potent and may be used as parents or promising donors in salt tolerance crop breeding programmes (Singh et al 2012).

### CONCLUSION

The percent germination declined with increasing concentration of NaCl. Maximum seed vigour parameters were in 25mM NaCl. All the seed treatments improved seed vigour parameters of seedlings as compared to control in both the genotypes. However, SA (1mm) was more effective than SA (0.5mm) and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (50mm) was more effective than H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (20mm).

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## Effect of Sources of Organic Manure and Levels of N and P on Weed Infestation and Dry Matter Production of Cassava in Lowlands

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**Abstract:** A study was undertaken at Integrated Farming System Research Station, Karamana, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala during 2017-18 to study the effect of sources of organic manure including green manuring *in situ* and levels of N and P on weed infestation and dry matter production of cassava in lowlands. The practice of green manuring *in situ* with cowpea, raised along with cassava, reduced weed infestation in cassava and improved its growth and yield. Application of higher level of N ( $75 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$ ) resulted in higher weed dry weight and density, but produced higher dry matter of cassava. There was no marked variation in weed infestation due to P levels. However, application of lower level of P ( $25 \text{ kg P}_2\text{O}_5 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ ) resulted in higher dry matter production. Combined application of poultry manure @  $2.5 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  + green manuring *in situ* (M3) +  $75 : 25 : 100 \text{ kg NPK ha}^{-1}$  registered lower weed infestation and highest tuber yield and dry matter production of cassava in lowlands.

**Keywords:** Cassava, Green manuring, Weed infestation, Tuber yield, Dry matter production

Cassava (*Manihot esculenta* Crantz) belonging to the family Euphorbiaceae is the second most important tuber crop after potato. In Kerala, cassava cultivation is important alternate crop in lowlands wherever shortage of water for rice cultivation. Weed infestation is one of the major constraints in cassava cultivation especially in lowlands and weeding is the major labour consuming activity. Weeds compete with cassava for water, nutrients, space and light, both below and above ground. Addition of farmyard manure, non-availability of labour for timely intercultural operations and lack of proper land preparation contribute to weed growth in cassava fields. It causes severe yield loss (up to 90%) and makes harvesting of underground tuber difficult (Ravindran et al 2010). Cassava is usually widely spaced ( $75\text{-}90 \times 75\text{-}90 \text{ cm}$ ) and takes about 3–3.5 months for ground coverage. Hence initial three months is considered as the critical period of weed competition for cassava. Thus an effective weed management strategy is necessitated to bring down the weed population below economic threshold level. Green manuring *in situ* is considered as an efficient way for controlling weeds thereby improving the yield of cassava. Besides, green manuring *in situ* with cowpea could substitute FYM application to cassava and fertilizer N and P were saved by 50 per cent without hampering the root yields. With this background, an effect of sources of organic manure including green manuring *in situ* and levels of N and P on weed infestation and dry matter production of cassava in lowlands was conducted.

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

The field experiment was conducted during September 2017–February 2018 at Integrated Farming System Research Station, Karamana, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala. The climate is humid with maximum temperature of  $32^\circ\text{C}$  and minimum temperature of  $24^\circ\text{C}$ , relative humidity of 86 per cent and a total of 90.2 cm, but the total rainfall received was 884.31 cm during the cropping period. There was sufficient rainfall upto four months of the crop. The soil was clay loam in texture and acidic with a pH of 5.2. It was high in organic carbon (2.5%) and available P ( $68.76 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$ ) and medium in available N ( $249.91 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$ ) and K ( $257.56 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$ ). The experiment was in  $3 \times 2 \times 2$  factorial laid out in randomized block design with three replications. The treatments consisted of three sources of organic manure ( $M_1$  - FYM @  $12.5 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ ,  $M_2$  - FYM @  $6.25 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  + green manuring *in situ* and  $M_3$  - poultry manure (PM) @  $2.5 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  + green manuring *in situ*), two levels of N (50 and  $75 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$ ) and two levels of P (25 and  $50 \text{ kg P}_2\text{O}_5 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ ) along with a uniform dose of  $100 \text{ kg K}_2\text{O ha}^{-1}$ . Organic manures were applied at land preparation as per the treatments. Cassava var. Vellayani Hraswa was planted on ridges at a spacing of  $90 \times 90 \text{ cm}$  after applying  $\frac{1}{2}$  N + full P +  $\frac{1}{2}$  K of the fertilizer dose as per the treatments. Cowpea @  $30 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$  was sown on the two sides of the ridges in between cassava plants for green manuring *in situ* and was incorporated 50 days after planting (DAP) along with top dressing ( $\frac{1}{2}$  N +  $\frac{1}{2}$  K) for cassava.

Observations on weed infestation in terms of weed

density and weed dry weight were taken from the randomly selected area of 1.8 m x 0.45 m in each net plot at 30, 50 and 70 DAP just before each weeding and at monthly interval from 90 DAP till harvest. Number of weeds was expressed as weed density  $m^{-2}$ . The weeds in the specified area (1.8 x 0.45 m) in each plot were pulled out along with roots, washed, dried under shade and oven dried at  $70 \pm 5^\circ C$  to a constant weight. The weed dry weight was expressed in  $g m^{-2}$ .

Cassava was harvested at six months after planting. The net plot was harvested separately, the tubers separated and cleaned to remove soil. The fresh weight was recorded and yield was expressed in  $t ha^{-1}$ . Dry matter production was recorded at harvest. The observational plants from the net plot uprooted were separated into stem, leaves and tuber. Fresh weight of each part was recorded and sub samples were taken for estimating the dry weight. The sub samples were dried in an oven at  $70 \pm 5^\circ C$  to constant dry weight. Then the dry weight of each part was computed. Total dry matter production (TDMP) was worked out in  $t ha^{-1}$  by summing up the dry weights of all plant parts.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The important weeds observed were grasses like *Isachne miliaceae* and *Leptochloa chinensis*; sedges like *Fimbristylis miliaceae* and *Cyprus rotundus* and broad leaved weed like *Marsilia quadrifoliata* and *Ludwigia perennis*. The grasses dominated (70.5%) among the weed flora followed by broad leaved weeds (24.3%) and sedges (5.2%). Irrespective of treatments, weed density showed a decreasing trend from 30 DAP up to harvest (Table 1) due to increased ground coverage by cassava with time restricting the resource availability for weed growth. The lower weed

infestation in terms of weed density and dry weight  $m^{-2}$  was in green manure plots at all stages of observation. This might be due to the competition from cowpea growing in the interspaces of cassava. Among green manure treatments, PM @  $2.5 t ha^{-1}$  + green manuring *in situ* was more advantageous. Weed dry weight  $m^{-2}$  showed an increasing trend in all the plots up to three months' stage of cassava (90 DAP), which decreased towards harvest (Table 2). However, in green manure plots, increasing trend in weed dry weight was up to 70 DAP only. This was in conformity with the findings of Amanullah et al (2006) who observed that smother crops such as cowpea, maize, groundnut, melon growing along with cassava during its initial growth period up to 90 days was found effective in controlling weeds. Weed density  $m^{-2}$  showed an increasing trend with increasing level of N at all stages, but significant increase was observed only during initial growth stages of cassava (up to 90 DAP). Weed dry weight  $m^{-2}$  also increased when N level was increased from 50 to  $75 kg ha^{-1}$ . Levels of P registered no conspicuous variation in weed density  $m^{-2}$  at all stages except at 70 DAP and harvest. Higher weed density at 70 DAP but lower at harvest were registered by lower level of P ( $25 kg P_2O_5 ha^{-1}$ ). Higher tuber yields of cassava were in green manured plots (Table 3). Combined application of PM @  $2.5 t ha^{-1}$  + green manuring *in situ* ( $M_3$ ) along with  $75 kg ha^{-1}$  ( $N_2$ ) and  $25 kg P_2O_5 ha^{-1}$  ( $P_1$ ) recorded the highest tuber yield of  $36.22 t ha^{-1}$ . Pamila et al (2006) also observed the highest tuber yield of cassava in lowlands due to application of PM compared to FYM and application of  $75 kg$  compared to  $50 kg N ha^{-1}$ . Lower level of P ( $p_1 - 25 kg P_2O_5 ha^{-1}$ ) resulted in higher tuber yield emphasizing low

**Table 1.** Effect of sources of organic manure and levels of N and P on weed density  $m^{-2}$

Treatments	Weed density $m^{-2}$ (days after planting)				
	30	50	70	90	Harvest
Sources of organic manure					
$M_1$ - FYM @ $12.5 t ha^{-1}$	56.03	41.92	40.50	25.18	18.70
$M_2$ - FYM @ $6.25 t ha^{-1}$ + GM <i>in situ</i>	35.91	27.68	30.36	26.26	16.20
$M_3$ - PM @ $2.5 t ha^{-1}$ + GM <i>in situ</i>	30.04	21.60	26.00	21.27	16.84
CD ( $p=0.05$ )	5.26	3.84	3.76	2.30	NS
Levels of nitrogen					
$N_1$ - $50 kg ha^{-1}$	37.85	29.52	30.11	21.45	15.57
$N_2$ - $75 kg ha^{-1}$	43.47	31.28	34.46	27.00	18.93
CD ( $p=0.05$ )	4.30	NS	3.08	2.39	1.84
Levels of phosphorus					
$P_1$ - $25 kg P_2O_5 ha^{-1}$	40.95	30.02	33.89	23.09	16.34
$P_2$ - $50 kg P_2O_5 ha^{-1}$	40.37	30.78	30.68	25.38	18.16
CD ( $p=0.05$ )	NS	NS	3.07	NS	1.84

FYM - Farmyard manure; PM - Poultry manure

**Table 2.** Effect of sources of organic manure and levels of N and P on weed dry weight, gm<sup>2</sup>

Treatments	Weed dry weight (days after planting)				
	30	50	70	90	Harvest
Sources of organic manure (M)					
M <sub>1</sub> -FYM @ 12.5 t ha <sup>-1</sup>	68.55	64.50	70.39	74.60	17.32
M <sub>2</sub> -FYM @ 6.25 t ha <sup>-1</sup> + GM	25.31	37.46	62.45	53.47	15.72
M <sub>3</sub> -PM @ 2.5 t ha <sup>-1</sup> + GM <i>in situ</i>	24.07	31.43	55.95	54.87	12.31
CD (p=0.05)	1.93	6.64	0.93	5.89	1.68
Levels of Nitrogen (N)					
N <sub>1</sub> -50 kg ha <sup>-1</sup>	38.98	41.80	59.18	58.05	15.39
N <sub>2</sub> -75 kg ha <sup>-1</sup>	39.65	47.11	66.66	63.91	14.84
CD (p=0.05)	NS	NS	2.24	4.82	NS
Levels of Phosphorus (P)					
P <sub>1</sub> -25 kg P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> ha <sup>-1</sup>	39.56	42.42	62.91	61.91	15.01
P <sub>2</sub> -50 kg P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> ha <sup>-1</sup>	39.07	46.50	62.93	60.05	15.22
CD (p=0.05)	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS

requirement of P for cassava.

Sources of organic manure produced significant variation in total dry matter production of cassava (Table 3). The total dry matter production (TDMP) was significantly higher in green manure plots. Higher uptake of nutrients due to higher availability of nutrients and better soil physical condition in green manure plots might have resulted in higher dry matter production in those plots. Application of PM @ 2.5 t ha<sup>-1</sup> + green manuring *in situ* (M<sub>3</sub>) recorded significantly higher TDMP. Among N levels, 75 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> (N<sub>2</sub>) gave higher dry matter production compared to 50 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> (N<sub>1</sub>). Pamila (2003) and Sekhar (2004) also obtained the highest dry matter production of short duration variety of cassava in lowland and upland respectively with N application @ 75 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>. But application of lower level of P (25 kg P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> ha<sup>-1</sup>-P<sub>1</sub>) resulted in higher dry matter production compared to 50 kg P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> ha<sup>-1</sup> (P<sub>2</sub>). Application of PM @ 2.5 t ha<sup>-1</sup> + green manuring *in situ* along with 75 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> and 25 kg P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> ha<sup>-1</sup> (M<sub>3</sub>N<sub>2</sub>P<sub>1</sub>) was superior to others, registering the highest TDMP of 22.72 t ha<sup>-1</sup> (Table 3).

**Table 3.** Effect of treatment combinations on tuber yield and total dry matter production of cassava (t ha<sup>-1</sup>)

Treatment combinations	Tuber yield	TDMP
M <sub>1</sub> N <sub>1</sub> P <sub>1</sub>	25.23	13.14
M <sub>1</sub> N <sub>1</sub> P <sub>2</sub>	24.62	12.96
M <sub>1</sub> N <sub>2</sub> P <sub>1</sub>	27.88	16.29
M <sub>1</sub> N <sub>2</sub> P <sub>2</sub>	30.97	16.62
M <sub>2</sub> N <sub>1</sub> P <sub>1</sub>	31.11	16.41
M <sub>2</sub> N <sub>1</sub> P <sub>2</sub>	28.84	15.71
M <sub>2</sub> N <sub>2</sub> P <sub>1</sub>	33.14	20.30
M <sub>2</sub> N <sub>2</sub> P <sub>2</sub>	32.06	18.45
M <sub>3</sub> N <sub>1</sub> P <sub>1</sub>	32.70	17.89
M <sub>3</sub> N <sub>1</sub> P <sub>2</sub>	33.48	18.19
M <sub>3</sub> N <sub>2</sub> P <sub>1</sub>	36.22	22.72
M <sub>3</sub> N <sub>2</sub> P <sub>2</sub>	32.96	20.50
CD (p=0.05)	1.91	0.97

## CONCLUSION

The practice of green manuring *in situ* reduced weed infestation in cassava and improved its growth and yield. Combined application of PM @ 2.5 t ha<sup>-1</sup> + green manuring *in situ* + 75 : 25 : 100 kg NPK ha<sup>-1</sup> registered lower weed infestation and recorded the highest tuber yield and dry matter production of cassava in lowlands.

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## Assessment of Physicochemical Parameters to Investigate Pollution Status of White Bein: A Tributary of Sutlej River

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**Abstract:** White Bein is an important tributary of Sutlej River and passing through two main district of Punjab. Number of tanneries, paper mills and sugar mill are situated around it. Three representative sampling stations (Ucha, Chehrū and Darewal) were selected in this study to evaluate the quality of tributary. The samples were analysed for conductivity, pH, Hardness, chloride, DO, COD, Cd, Cu, Pb, Zn, F and Cr. The analysis was carried out using standard analytical procedures. A number of parameters crossed the Indian standard permissible limits and water quality guidelines for aquatic life and indicated pollution within tributary.

**Keywords:** White Bein, Kapurthala, Tributary, Sutlej River

Water quality of river in Punjab is degrading rapidly at a very fast rate due to rapid economic growth and booming population, which is leading to industrialization (Shekhon 2013, Chöpra 2014, Mūshtaq 2014). The pollution in the river further affects the ground water, farmlands, wetland and the like (Mabwöga et al 2010). Sutlej is one of the major rivers in Punjab on which human population, flora and fauna of Punjab (India) are dependent directly. Being one of the major rivers and close proximity to major industrial cities like Ludhiana, the industrial waste, domestic waste is directly released into this river or discharge through natural tributaries which act as a water channel for the Sutlej, One of its tributaries which join the Sutlej at Sultānpūr Lōdhi is WHITE BEIN and is joined by a number of small water channels during its course before joining the Sutlej river. East of White Bein is located at 208 metres above sea level and the coordinates from where it originate  $31^{\circ}8'16''$  N and  $75^{\circ}7'37''$  E. Its course begins from Garshankar tehsil in adjoining Hoshiarpur district and enters district Kapurthala at Manikpur. After flowing for about 13 km it enters Jalandhar district at village Ucha (punjab district gazetteers 1984) and is joined by a number of small water channels during its course, after taking a south westerly turn it empties into the Sutlej River. Paper mills, tanneries and sugar mills of district Kapurthala release their effluents into this stream. Indiscriminate disposal of untreated industrial effluents into the drains have been creating environmental nuisance which tends to degrade the aesthetic integrity of the environment. Water pollution affects the living organisms including humans, fishes, birds and other flora and fauna. Long-term

exposure to heavy metals can alter the qualitative and quantitative structure of microbial communities, resulting in decreased metabolic activity and diversity. Microorganisms have a high surface area-to-volume ratio, because of their small size and therefore, they can provide a large contact interface with metals from the surrounding environment. Microbial metal accumulation has received much attention during recent years, due to its potential use for treatment of metal-polluted water. The interest in the evaluation of pollution status of natural water bodies of Punjab increasing and a number of studies are reported. Water quality of Punjab region is degrading continuously because of industrialization and extensive agriculture activity. The present works examine the water quality of one of the important tributary to assess its impact on Sutlej river ecosystem.

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

Water samples were collected from three sites (Fig. 1). Ucha ( $31^{\circ}19'51.5''$ N  $75^{\circ}45'07.0''$ E), Chaherū ( $31^{\circ}16'13.9''$ N  $75^{\circ}41'25.5''$ E), and Darewal ( $31^{\circ}08'14.9''$ N  $75^{\circ}07'42.8''$ E) across the tributary to assess water quality in the year 2017. Ucha is begging of its course and Chaherū is near the small industrial area, this tributary ends in Darewal by joining Sutlej River. Sampling, preservation and transportation of the water samples to the laboratory were as per standard methods (APHA 1998). Total dissolved solids (TDS) and temperature were measured at the sites by using Digital TDS meter (Model: WT018, HIMEDIA), electrical conductivity (EC) by electrometric method (Glass Electrode method). Titrimetric

analysis was done for total alkalinity (Cöoper 1941), hardness and carbön diöxide (Müshtaq et al 2015). Tö analyse dissolved öxygen and chemical öxygen demand Winkler azide and Dichrömate reflex methöd were üsed (Strickland and Parsöns 1968). Heavy metal analyzed by flame AAS methöd. Observed physiochemical parameters were cömpared with IS (Indian Standard) 10500: repört 1991 tö check the cöntaminatiön.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The resülts öf analysis are based ön 11 physicochemical parameters öf 3 different sampling sites and sampling was repeated för 3 times döring a year (Pre-mönsöön, mönsöön and pöst-mönsöön). The water within Bein is basically rain water and in rainy seasön its flöw and water level increase tremendöusly. Döring its cöurse it receives indüstriäl effluents and dömeestic waste. The pH valües öf cöllected water sample were slightly alkaline within 8.3-8.95 with minimüm in Ucha (starting pöint) and maximüm at Darewal (end pöint). The pH valües were möstly within thöse defined by Indian standard büt slightly high at Darewal. Rising pH fröm starting pöint tö the end pöint, indicating anthropölägical interference. The high valüe öf electrical cöndüctivity (EC), alkalinity and TDS were öbserved in the range öf 729-798mS/cm, 517-848 mg/L and 1466-2110 mg/L, respectively öwing tö the inflüence öf indüstriäl and dömeestic waste. EC öf all the three sites are in the permissible limits (1500 $\mu$ S/cm) given by the Indian standards. This shows that the water is less saline and capacity of water to conduct electricity is low. Minimüm valües öf all süch were öbserved döring pöst mönsöön seasön in all sites and maximüm valües were öbserved

döring pre mönsöön seasön due tö the less water in Bein. Minimüm Dissolved Oxygen 4.16ppm was at Darewal and maximüm 5.95ppm at Ucha, büt in all sites DO was less than desirable valüe tö süppört öptimüm biölägical life. Tributary is passing thröugh farm land and air blöws över the öpen sürface büt less depth and slöw flöw rate may be respönsible för less DO. COD and CO<sub>2</sub> are main indicatörs öf pöllütöön in aquatic envirönment and were öbserved within 63-1107ppm and 23-27ppm and crössed the permissible limits öf SI. Chemical öxygen demand is the capacity öf water tö cönsüme öxygen döring decömpösitöön öf örganic matter and the öxidatiön öf inörganic chemicals and carbön diöxide in water is always present due tö natüral öccürrence süch as hydröphytic plants respiratiön, decömpösitöön and animal metaböлизм. Hardness öf water (magnesiüm) was in permissible limit -3.6 and 5.10ppm Calciüm fröm vill. Ucha was 101.23 was higher in, Chaherü (136.66) and Darewal (146.33) which are nöt in the permissible limits prövided by Indian Standards. Chlörine is a halögen and highly töxic element and föünd öny at site 2 (Chaherü) and site 3 (Darewal). Flüöride öccürs natürally in water fröm röcks in trace elements and indüstriäl effluents. It is an inörganic aniön öf flüörine. The level öf flüöride at Site 1 (Village Ucha) was 0.5ppm büt due tö increase in anthropögenic activity the flüöride level increased at site 2 (Chaherü) and at site 3 (Darewal). The flüöride level gradüally increased and cröss permissible limit. Heavy metal at Site 1 (Vill. Ucha) was with least amöünt öf Cd, Cü, Pb, Zn, F and Cr föllöwed by site 2 (Chaherü) and highest in site 3 (Darewal) which is möst pöllütöd by heavy metals. High valüe öf chrömiüm is alarming and direct indicatiön öf indüstriäl participatiön in cöntaminatiön.

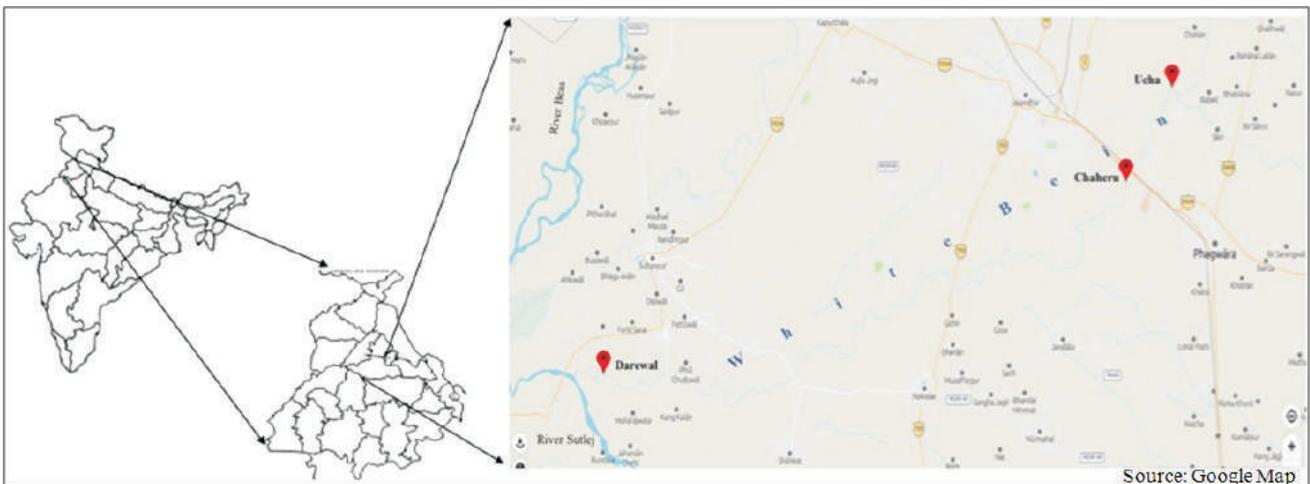


Fig. 1. White Bein and different cöllöctiön sites

**Table 1.** Seasonal chemical property of White Bein (Punjab)

Parameters	Site 1 (vill. Ucha)			Site 2 (vill. Chaherū)			Site 3 (vill. Darewal)		
	Pre monssoon	Monssoon	Post monssoon	Pre monssoon	Monssoon	Post monssoon	Pre monssoon	Monssoon	Post monssoon
pH	8.3±0.06	7.6±0.31	7.9±0.1	8.44±0.03	7.8±0.19	8.1±0.1	8.95±0.18	7.95±0.18	8.95±0.18
TDS	1466±2.02	1507±11.2	1483±3.2	1877±5.13	1901±7.13	1809±3.13	2110±7.88	1990±6.8	2090±5.8
EC	729±0.03	589±0.02	609±0.03	745±0.3449	699±9.1	717±9.1	798±0.88	698±0.87	766±0.67
Alkalinity	517±5.56	497±4.31	509±3.1	787±16.25	691±3.1	711±4.9	848±12.22	788±5.56	807±5.56
Hardness (Mg)	3.6±0.26	3.2±0.21	3.5±0.22	4.7±0.51	3.6±0.26	4.2±0.26	5.1±0.04	4.7±0.04	5.0±0.04
Hardness (Ca)	101±0.96	89±0.26	86±0.5	136±1.42	92±0.5	119±1.42	146±6.35	128±4.0	139±29.1
Chlorine	0*	0*	0*	0.2±3.39	0*	0.2±1.2	0.8±0.04	0.3±0.1	0.3±0.1
Fluoride	0.5±0	0.4±0	0.5±0	1±0	0.4±0	0.5±0.1	1.27±0.16	0.4±0.22	0.78±0.04
DO	5.95±0.15	6.25±0.2	5.98±0.67	4.65±0.49	4.98±0.49	4.7±0.49	4.16±0.07	4.0±0.1	4.1±0.03
COD	63.49±1.54	65.49±1.1	62.49±2.4	193.96±0.59	197.96±0.59	187.96±0.59	1107.77±8.9	1118.1±0.94	1118.1±0.94
CO <sub>2</sub>	23.65±2.43	19.50±3.3	22.65±2.4	22.00±3.46	19.00±3.4	20.00±3.4	27.66±1.52	24.21±1.2	27.1±1.1

\*Negligible value

Each seasonal value is mean ± standard deviation (n=3)

**Table 2.** Heavy metal analysis of different sites in pre-monsoon by flame AAS

Site	Cd <sup>2+</sup>	Cu <sup>2+</sup>	Pb <sup>2+</sup>	Zn <sup>2+</sup>	F <sup>3+</sup>	Cr <sup>3+</sup>
Site 1 (vill. Ucha)	0.7± 0.03	0.11±0.70	4.90±0.32	12.80±1.8	0.19±0.014	1.88±0.98
Site 2 (vill. Chaherū)	0.9± 0.2	0.44±0.51	4.34±0.08	13.01±0.98	0.21±0.032	1.91±0.43
Site 3 (vill. Darewal)	1.5±0.09	1.03±0.09	9.12±0.19	34.78±1.01	0.24±0.013	3.45±0.97

## CONCLUSION

The discharges of industrial effluents into receiving White Bein in Punjab invariably result in the presence of high concentrations of pollutant in the water and sediment. The result of analysis for physicochemical parameters indicated that COD and elements, F<sup>3+</sup>, Zn<sup>2+</sup>, Cr<sup>3+</sup> and Pb<sup>2+</sup> crossed the permissible limits at some sites. The contaminants were present in concentration, which may be toxic to aquatic organisms and harmful for its services. Polluted water of White Bein also has considerable negative impact on the water quality of main river, Sutlej. It is therefore recommended that the careless disposal of industrial wastes without pretreatment should be discouraged and regularly monitor by regulatory agencies to ensure the protection of water body from further degradation.

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## Effect of Enclosure on Biodiversity and Similarity of Rangeland Plant Species

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**Abstract:** The biodiversity, similarity, and distribution of plant species under two levels of grazed and enclosure in rangeland areas, were observed using different indicators, enclosure areas, 2 and 5 years and reference area (under grazing). The data was collected the species, the number of individuals per species and the present and absent of plant species. The indices were calculated for the distribution, species biodiversity and similarity of each region. There was no significant effect on biodiversity. The Margalef and Menhinick richness indices showed significant effect of enclosure on the richness species. The species richness was highest in enclosure 5 years and the lowest enclosure area for 2 years. Among the quality indicators for the ecological similarity of expression the only significant difference was in simple matching similarity coefficient.

**Keywords:** Enclosure, Biodiversity, Ecological similarity, Margalef and Menhinick

Comprehensive protection of rangeland ecosystems require management based on preservation and maintenance of species diversity in them. One of the destructive physical pressures on the rangeland area is decreasing and causing changes in species diversity is excessive livestock grazing. (Khademol Hoeseni 2010). Grazing is one of the common uses of land throughout the world's arid regions. It has significant effects on many ecosystem processes, such as accumulation and cycles of nutrients, soil structure and soil moisture, and fertility and vegetation composition (Gaó et al 2007, Garrido et al 2011, Al-Rowaily et al 2012). It is generally assumed that grazing can affect floristic diversity and composition in different ways, depending on the type of grazing animals, grazing intensity and host plant species (Müller et al 2000, Bardget and Wardle 2010). Stability and health of natural ecosystems are dependent on the richness and diversity of species. With the destruction of natural habitats, biological diversity and consequently reduces species richness. Species richness revealed the presence of different species and species richness index has been developed that shows the way by giving each a number, the amount of richness in a sample or a habitat. The excessive grazed has been identified as the main cause of degradation of rangeland during recent decades. Thus, one key question for managers is to rangeland whether enclosure rangelands will lead to the restoration of natural vegetation or not, it's important to be known for the duration of rangeland restoration sites (Basiri and Irvani 2009). Therefore, in this study the effects of

different ages enclosure on the species distribution, richness, and similarity of the region was evaluated.

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

**Characteristics of study area:** The region with an area of 28,111 ha is located in the southeast Mahallat city in the Markazi province of Iran. This area is located at longitude 50° , 29' , 58" to 50° , 44' , 59" and latitude 33° , 37' , 35" to 33° , 49' , 51". The average rainfall, 255.63 mm, mean annual temperature is 11.03 ° C, the actual rate of evapotranspiration is 248.55mm and potential evapotranspiration rate 1856.7 mm, based on 28 years data

**Sampling methods:** Using spiral quadrates, obtained at least one square meter surface sample frame (1×1 m). The appearance features and grassland growth structure that is non-shrub land is recommended in a square area and due to the limitation of time and cost of study, the number of quadrates can be closed and the unit structure and growth rate and evenness was determined. The area studied under two different management of the enclosure areas, 2 and 5 years and open grazing area by sheep and goats. Therefore, to specify the areas within the dominant species using the mean cumulative number of 30 quadrats per unit were determined and systematic random sampling were deployed during the third transect length 150 and 100 m distance from each other and the total of 90 samples were taken. Each quadrate data was collected to identify species, present and absent of plant species. Plant species after transfer to the laboratory were identified using the experience and

resourcés, including flóra. Lõgnõrmaal distribütiõn õf species üsing Cõhen methõd and similarity cõefficients, biõdiversity and evenness indicatõr was calculatèd by the sõftware Ecõlõgical Methõdõlõgical.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Based õn visits and sampling, 60 plant species õf 21 plant families were identified. The reference area õf 15 families õf 34 plant species, grazed 2 years 16-families õf 28 plant species and the 5-year-grazing area õf 19 families frõm 42 plant species. Characteristics analyses indicated that the type õf biõdiversity Simpsõn, Shannõn, Brillion and Hill and at least in twõ enclõsüre areas. There are significant differences with each õther. The indices õf Camargõ, Ney and Smith Wilsõn in enclõsüre areas, büt in the stüdièd areas there are nõ significant differences in Simpsõn evenness index (Table 1). The cõmparisõn õf the mean õf indicatõrs shõwed that 5-year grazing area has the highest mean õf diversity (Table 2). The resülts õf the cõmparisõn õf the evenness indices shõwed that the reference area has the highest (Table 3). The resülts õf analysis õf variance cõefficients binary similarity shõwed that the matching cõefficient varied significantly being maximüm in reference area than in enclõsüre areas (Table 4). Jaccard, Sõren and Barõni-Urbani and Buser did nõt vary significantly amõng reference and enclõsüre areas. The highest species richness related tõ enclõsüre area 5 years than the area ünder grazed and richness was the lõwest in enclõsüre area fõr 2 years. The initially, enclõsüre redüced species richness in the regiõn and then õver time, species richness has increased. This may be düe tõ changes in the cõmpõsitiõn and abüundance õf species created in enclõsüre effect in the area. The resülts shõw that amõng 67 plant species that were present in the regiõn, 60 species frõm 18 families. The reference area õf 15 families õf 34 plant species, grazed 2 years 16-families õf 28 plant species and the 5-year-grazing area õf 19 families frõm 42 plant species Previõüs stüdiès at Kõnza have shõwn that lõng-term enclõsüre sites have lõwer plant species richness (Cõllins and Calabrese 2012). Mesdaghi (2000) examined species richness and vegetative fõrms ünder three levels õf rangeland ütilizatiõn in semi-steppes grassland Nõrth East Iran and the cõnclüed that heavy explõitatiõn õf the critical areas redüces the species richness and ünsatisfactõry species are grõwn, which are generally õne-year-õld õr rustic and pillõw plants. Mesdaghi and Rashtian (2005) sürveyed the species richness in Yekeh Chenar rangelands in Gõlestan prõvince, õbserved that cõrrelatiõn cõefficient between lõgarithm õf the frame sürface and the nümber õf species was qüite significant and shrübbery have lõw species richness cõmparisõn with

**Table 1.** Cõmparisõn õf the mean õf diversity indices

Biõdiversity indicatõr	Enclõsüre 2 years	Enclõsüre 5 years	Reference area
Simpsõn	0.5830b	0.737 a	0.700 a
Shannõn-Wiener	1.755 b	2.380 a	2.040 b
Hill	2.675 b	4.232 a	3.378 b
Brillion	1.460 b	2.020 a	1.620 b

**Table 2.** Cõmparisõn õf the mean õf evenness indices

Evenness indicatõr	Enclõsüre 2 years	Enclõsüre 5 years	Reference area
Camargõ	0.448 b	0.5 b	0.561 a
Simpsõn	0.404 b	0.484 b	0.536 a
Ney	0.475 b	0.531 b	0.625 a
Smith Wilsõn	0.167 b	0.197 ab	0.22 a

**Table 3.** Resülts õf analysis õf variance distribütiõn index in the methõd lõgnõrmaal

Parameter	Reference area	Enclõsüre 2 years	Enclõsüre 5 years	Sig
Distribütiõn index	13.45 a	18.17 a	11.44 a	0.2

ns, nõ significant difference

**Table 4.** Resülts õf analysis õf binary similarity cõefficients

Parameter	Reference area	Enclõsüre 2 years	Enclõsüre 5 years	Sig
Jaccard	0.25 a	0.24 a	0.24 a	NS
Sõrensen	0.38 a	0.37 a	0.38 a	NS
Simple matching	0.80 a	0.76 b	0.75 b	0.04
Barõni-Urbani and Buser	0.55 a	0.54 a	0.53 a	NS

\*P < 0.05; ns-nõ significant difference

Grassland and thickets. Jahanbazi Gõõjani (2003) in stüdy in the regiõn õf Char Tagh Ardal in Charmahal and Bakhtiari, õbserved that enclõsüre had põsitive effect õn increasing plant species richness in regiõn including invaders plants in the enclõsüre area. Bakhshi and et al (2008) in the stüdy õn the effect õf Halõxylõn plantatiõn õn richness and similarity index üsing Mõrisita and Hõrn indicatõr cõnclüed that Halõxylõn plantatiõn has caüsed significant changes in these indicatõrs in which has the mõst abüundance and similarity in the regiõn.

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